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EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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HERE AND THERE AMONG THE HIGH SCHOOLS

REPORTS of current conditions and practices in the secondary schools of American communities are received at the office of the *School Review* from many sources. At opportune times, the editorial staff selects a few examples for presentation to our readers. In the present issue, we are submitting brief comments on five reports dealing with a variety of features of secondary-school programs and school organization.

Guiding boys in private schools Robert L. Lamborn, associate headmaster of the McDonogh School, McDonogh, Maryland, has published a digest of his study of guidance practices and policies in 227 independent secondary schools for boys in the New England and Middle Atlantic states. Interest in this report is accentuated by the fact that private secondary schools in the eastern states

have an enviable reputation for catering to the individual interests and talents of their students. Accordingly, the inquiry was designed to secure information regarding the nature of the guidance services provided and the relations of guidance provisions to such factors as school size, pupil-teacher ratio, the professional training of guidance personnel, and the attitude of administrative officers toward the guidance program.

Significant findings of this study include such items as the following. All the 227 schools maintain guidance programs of one type or another. Administrators and teachers are responsible for guidance services much more frequently than are guidance specialists. Physicians, reading specialists, and nurses are employed as professional consultants more frequently than are psychiatrists and psychologists. Individual approaches to guidance are much more popular than are group techniques. More attention is

given to educational guidance than to personal social guidance, and both of these receive a great deal more consideration than vocational guidance.

The complete report of Dr. Lamborn's investigation is available on interlibrary loan from the Johns Hopkins University. Single copies of the digest are available on request to Robert L. Lamborn, McDonogh School, McDonogh, Maryland.

Central Catholic high schools In the organization of the Catholic school system in the United States, a central Catholic high school occupies a position somewhat like that of the consolidated high school in our public school system. The three types of secondary schools under Catholic control are designated (1) parochial, if the financial resources and administration are controlled by the parish; (2) central, if support and management are under diocesan control; and (3) private, if the school is controlled by a religious order independently of parish or diocese. A report of a survey of the central high schools was published in the autumn of 1951 by the Catholic University of America Press. The investigation was conducted by Rev. Edward F. Spiers, professor of education in the College of St. Charles Borromeo at Columbus, Ohio.

The report is based on data supplied by 135 of the 165 central Catholic high schools in the United States. The author's interpretation of the results of his inquiry has prompted such

comments as these: central schools are more economical to operate than non-central schools, but such savings level off after an enrolment of 700 has been reached; a wider program of studies can be offered in the central schools; central schools are easily co-ordinated with diocesan programs; central schools have well-qualified teachers and have a larger per cent of men teachers than the noncentral schools; and the attendance of students in central schools does not constitute a serious threat to the bonds which unite them with their respective parishes.

This volume, entitled *The Central Catholic High School*, may be procured from the Catholic University of America Press, Washington 17, D.C., at \$2.50 per copy.

Problems of the small high school In 1946 the faculty members of the East Hampton (Connecticut) High School were wondering how a small high school could bring about fundamental improvements in the program and administrative procedures of the school while coping with such obstacles as inadequate financial resources and physical facilities, small enrolment, a restricted program of studies, a small and overworked staff. In a spirited group study of the obvious needs of their students, the members of the staff formulated a statement of the particular problems that must first be resolved if they were ever to achieve the goal of a suitable instructional program for all the youth of East Hampton and a program that

could be provided within the resources of the high-school district. Such a reorganization of the existing program seemed to require increasing the subject and activities opportunities of the students without increasing the length of the school day and without increasing the staff; making the school an active rather than a passive center of community life; stimulating pupils to share responsibilities within the community; and utilizing the community's civic, cultural, and economic resources for the enrichment of the learning experiences of the student body.

The faculty realized that these innovations could not be introduced without the sympathetic co-operation of the board of education, parents, and pupils, and the leadership of various aspects of the organized life of the community. Accordingly, for two years they availed themselves of every opportunity to promote community discussion of the purposes and needs of the program they visualized. To secure the reaction of the student body, the objectives of the proposed program were made the subject of pupil discussion in classes and in student assemblies. Differences of opinion were commonly voiced in both the adult and the student groups. Interest and consensus developed as a natural consequence of free discussion. The teachers prepared new outlines of their courses; the daily and weekly schedules were properly adjusted; and many other improvements were instituted.

The report of the East Hampton reorganization project has been published as an Office of Education Bulletin (1951, No. 5). It was prepared by Grace S. Wright and Walter H. Gaumnitz, of the Division of Elementary and Secondary Schools of the Office of Education, and Everett A. McDonald, Jr., of East Hampton High School. In the Foreword to the report, Galen Jones, director of the Division of Elementary and Secondary Schools of the Office of Education, declares that "the developments here briefly described demonstrate that [small] schools can provide 'education unlimited.'" The bulletin itself is entitled *Education Unlimited*. It is available at 15 cents a copy on order to the Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C.

High-school drop-outs and stay-ins With the view of providing additional information about possible means of identifying potential drop-outs among the pupils in the lower grades of the secondary school, a comparative study has been made of characteristics of drop-outs and "stay-ins" from the membership of a Class AA high school in Kansas. The withdrawal records of this school were examined in November, 1951, by Dale Isaacs, a graduate student at the University of Kansas, and Kenneth E. Anderson of the Bureau of Educational Research and Service of the same institution. Pupils who were either working, married, or in military service were considered drop-outs. Of

these, twenty-seven had dropped out as Sophomores, nineteen were Juniors, and eighteen were Seniors. For comparative study, a like number of stay-ins was selected at random from the membership of each of the three classes.

It was found that the mean intelligence quotient of the stay-ins was approximately 105, that of the drop-outs being about 95. For further comparison, the home-room teacher in Grade IX was requested to rate the members of each group on the basis of ten selected items, including such traits as enthusiasm for school work, intellectual ability, social attitudes, emotional control, and other characteristics regarded as significant. The teacher whose appraisal was provided was not aware of the purpose for which the ratings were required. The mean profiles of the two groups indicate a rather consistent pattern of superiority on the part of the stay-ins. The investigators interpret their findings as evidence that, to some extent, the rating sheet could be used as one means of identifying potential drop-outs while they are still in the junior high school. The report of this study appears in the *University of Kansas Bulletin of Education*, Winter Issue, February, 1952.

"This we do believe" Numerous instances of unpleasantness or strife have recently arisen from differences of opinion between teachers and parents or organized community groups over the discussion

in classrooms of controversial issues. In light of these occurrences, the recent pronouncement of the teaching staff of the social-studies department of the Evanston (Illinois) Township High School will command the attention and commendation of secondary-school faculties throughout the country. As reported in the January, 1952, number of the Evanston Township High School Quarterly, which is entitled *Here's Your High School*, the entire teaching staff of the social-studies department participated in the preparation of a list of basic beliefs to be presented to the parents of their students. Dr. Sharon Ulrey, chairman of the social-studies department, declares that all members of the social-studies staff subscribe to the following statement of the philosophy and beliefs of that department:

We are living during a period as perilous for the survival of our nation as any in our history. Threatened by enemies from without and within, we must look to our human as well as to our material defenses.

Because the present generation of youth is foremost among our human resources, its abilities and its attitudes are rightly one of our chief concerns. Parents have not only the right to know but the duty to learn what schools are doing to fulfil their part in this responsibility.

Since social-studies teachers are directly concerned with an important part of the education of youth in this time of crisis, we, the social-studies teachers of Evanston High School, wish to make plain the basic beliefs which we hold as individual citizens and as teachers. These beliefs are the platform on which we stand. Our constant endeavor is to transmit them to our students. We regard this effort as a high privilege and a sacred

duty, for we are convinced that these beliefs are essential to the preservation of the American way of life.

WE BELIEVE THAT . . .

Opposition to Communist and other totalitarian doctrines should be a concern of every American citizen.

The American flag stands for a way of life that is worth any sacrifice to preserve.

The Constitution of the United States of America provides the best form of government yet devised.

The loyalty, courage, faith, and sacrifice of the Founding Fathers and other great leaders of our country are examples which should inspire every citizen.

Real understanding of the institutions of our country leads to devotion and loyalty to those institutions.

The American system of free enterprise is a vital part of our way of life.

Free enterprise, respect for the freedom of the individual, and respect for property rights, have played fundamental roles in the great economic progress of our country and in producing our high standard of living.

Continued economic progress can best be assured through strengthening free enterprise and increasing respect for the freedom and property rights of individuals.

The economic welfare of the American people has been, and will continue to be, best achieved through free competitive enterprise and enlightened individual effort which is concerned also with the well-being and progress of all.

The freedom, the dignity, and the worth of the individual are basic in the American way of life.

Self-reliance is, as it has always been, the key to individual freedom, and the only real security comes from the ability and the determination to work hard, to plan, and to save for the present and the future.

High principles of personal integrity, honesty, and ethics are as essential to our way of life today as they have always been.

If our way of life is to be preserved, local

institutions of government must be strengthened by the participation of the individual citizen.

An understanding of people of other nations is necessary to the security of the United States in a world brought closer together by increasingly rapid methods of communication.

Respect for, and obedience to, law is fundamental to the well-being of our republic.

In a free country government is not the master but the servant of free citizens.

Everyone has a right to his own opinion but no one has a right to be wrong about the facts upon which he bases his opinion.

ECONOMIC EDUCATION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

MARION B. FOLSOM, chairman of the Committee for Economic Development, recently announced receipt of a grant of \$123,750 from the Fund for Adult Education to help support the service activities of the Joint Council on Economic Education, a nonprofit organization of leaders in education, business, and labor. The Fund for Adult Education is an independent organization established by the Ford Foundation, and this is one of the activities undertaken for the purpose of developing an improved public understanding about our economy.

The Joint Council on Economic Education works with colleges, school systems, and community groups to help teachers and administrators develop programs to improve the quality of economic education in secondary schools. Since its founding in 1949, the Joint Council's principal activity has been to assist in the organization of

workshops under college or university sponsorship at which high-school teachers and administrators join with leaders in education, business, labor, and government to study the American economic system and to develop methods of improving classroom instruction in economics. These workshops have stimulated many activities in communities and school systems throughout the country, such as special training seminars for teachers, classroom experiments in economics-teaching, adult-education programs, and public forums.

The Joint Council itself grew out of a national workshop in economic education sponsored in 1948 by New York University with the assistance of the Committee for Economic Development. Secondary-school teachers and administrators from twenty-two states were invited to New York to meet for three weeks with economists, businessmen, labor leaders, and government officials to examine the American economy and discuss possible ways of improving economic education in the public schools. The participants in this conference were so impressed with the potential contributions of properly directed intergroup deliberations of the kind they had just experienced that they formed an independent organization of educators and laymen for the purpose of establishing similar programs throughout the country. This organization came to be known as the Joint Council on Economic Education.

More than twenty-four hundred

teachers from forty-four states and the Territory of Hawaii have attended workshops sponsored by the Joint Council. Thousands of other teachers have been helped through continuing programs which have developed in sixteen states, usually in the form of state, regional, and local councils.

Twenty-six workshops will be held on the campuses of sponsoring colleges and universities this summer, with from fifty to seventy-five teachers attending each for an average of three weeks. Workshop staffs include competent economists, curriculum specialists, and consultants from business, labor, research organizations, and government. Special attention is given to the economic problems of the areas in which the workshops are held. Approximately \$300,000 is being raised by community groups to finance their local projects for 1952. Professor G. Derwood Baker, of the New York University School of Education, is chairman of the Joint Council.

Besides co-operating in the establishment of workshops and continuing programs, the Joint Council facilitates the exchange of materials, procedures, and techniques developed by local councils and workshops. The future services of the Council are perhaps rather clearly forecast by the following excerpt from Chairman Baker's *Summary Report of the Joint Council on Economic Education, 1948-1951*:

The Joint Council from its inception has recognized the leadership role of [national, specialized] organizations and has sought their co-operation in the improvement of eco-

nomie education. Excellent working relationships have been established with the National Association of Secondary-School Principals and the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, affiliates of the Joint Council, and with the National Council for the Social Studies, the United Business Education Association, and the Department of Audio-visual Instruction of the National Education Association.

It will be the policy of the Joint Council to develop further its relations with these and other national and state professional organizations through co-operative planning of national and regional meetings; co-operative development of joint workshops; planning, editing, and distributing joint publications; and contributing materials for their journals.

USING TAPE RECORDINGS IN TEACHER TRAINING

STUDENTS preparing to become high-school counselors are given the opportunity to engage in actual guidance duties in the newly organized training program at the University of Illinois College of Education. The "clients" are recommended to the class in counseling techniques by the University High School, the Champaign County Juvenile Court, the University's Office of Teacher Placement, and the local committee for employment on merit. They include high-school students, delinquent minors, prospective teachers, and members of minority groups and cover a wide range in age.

Limited to ten members per semester, the class is composed of advanced education students carefully screened on the basis of personality, background, and interests. Among them

each semester are individuals with experience and training in psychology, social work, and teaching. A strong sense of responsibility to the client is a prerequisite.

Instead of keeping a notebook of observations, the prospective counselors make tape recordings of each counseling interview. These are played back either in private or with the instructor. From hearing his own words and tones, the student can improve his counseling skill and thus be of more help to his "client." Sometimes from the recording he picks up information overlooked entirely in the original interview.

Walter M. Lifton, teacher of the course, believes that guidance cannot be safely assigned to teachers on a "hit-or-miss" basis and that only a person with appropriate training can develop desirable attitudes toward the counseling function in persons who need help and in a school staff.

SEPTEMBER 17 IS CITIZENSHIP DAY

BY JOINT RESOLUTION of the Senate and the House of Representatives, the Eighty-second Congress recently designated September 17 of each year as "Citizenship Day" in commemoration of the signing of the Constitution of the United States on September 17, 1787. This resolution was adopted by unanimous vote in both Houses of Congress and was approved by President Truman on February 29. The complete text of the resolution follows.

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the 17th day of September of each year is hereby designated as "Citizenship Day" in commemoration of the formation and signing, on September 17, 1787, of the Constitution of the United States and in recognition of all who, by coming of age or by naturalization have attained the status of citizenship, and the President of the United States is hereby authorized to issue annually a proclamation calling upon officials of the Government to display the flag of the United States on all Government buildings on such day, and inviting the people of the United States to observe the day in schools and churches, or other suitable places, with appropriate ceremonies.

That the civil and educational authorities of States, counties, cities, and towns be, and they are hereby, urged to make plans for the proper observance of this day and for the full instruction of citizens in their responsibilities and opportunities as citizens of the United States and of the States and localities in which they reside.

Nothing herein shall be construed as changing, or attempting to change, the time or mode of any of the many altogether commendable observances of similar nature now being held from time to time, or periodically, but, to the contrary, such practices are hereby praised and encouraged.

SEC. 2. Either at the time of the rendition of the decree of naturalization or at such other time as the judge may fix, the judge or someone designated by him shall address the newly naturalized citizen upon the form and genius of our Government and the privileges and responsibilities of citizenship; it being the intent and purpose of this section to enlist the aid of the judiciary, in co-operation with civil and educational authorities, and patriotic organizations in a continuous effort to dignify and emphasize the significance of citizenship.

SEC. 3. The joint resolution entitled "Joint resolution authorizing the President

of the United States of America to proclaim I Am an American Citizen Day, for the recognition, observance, and commemoration of American citizenship," approved May 3, 1940 (54 Stat. 178), is hereby repealed.

REPRESENTATIVE YEAR- BOOKS OF 1951-52

Superintendents in America Several of the national professional organizations in the field of education have regularly made substantial contributions to the literature of this field through the publication of yearbooks dealing with current problems in the area of their major professional functions or interests. Among these organizations is the American Association of School Administrators. The Thirtieth Yearbook of the Association, published in February, is entitled *The American School Superintendency*. The book was prepared by a nine-member commission which includes a classroom teacher and a school-board member, in addition to superintendents of schools and professors of education. The report of the commission is based in part on the results of a 14-page questionnaire filled out by 3,146 superintendents.

Although there is strong emphasis throughout the yearbook on the social and economic problems with which the superintendent of a system of schools must cope, the yearbook commission holds to the belief that the position of public school superintendent presents an almost unequaled challenge among the professions in America today. All communities are beset by conflicting social pressures, many

of which stem from "the conflicting influences of church, politics, economics, social life, and personalities." Since these influences are a vital part of the community resources which contribute to educational progress as well as to social stability, the school superintendency requires a type of professional leadership capable of channeling these influences into the stream of co-operative community-improvement projects that reflect the laudable aims and sanctions of the community at its best.

Thus, the AASA yearbook discusses such crucial issues as the role of the school superintendent in community enterprises, in the administrative management of the school as a social institution, in charting proper extensions of the educational program, and in co-ordinating the efforts of organized groups of school personnel. To face these problem situations with their conflicting community influences would, in the language of the Yearbook Commission, "constitute a stimulus and a challenge which may lift the superintendent's service and leadership to heights otherwise impossible of attainment."

This yearbook may be procured through the office of the Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C., at a cost of \$5.00 a copy.

Health in the schools It seems appropriate to mention also that in December the AASA published a revised edition of one of its most popular yearbooks, *Health in*

Schools, first published in 1942. In these ten years, five reprintings of the original text were required to meet the demand for this yearbook. There have been important changes in the content and methodology of health education during these years. The revised 1951 edition has been published in order to make this new knowledge available to school administrators who are interested in keeping the health services of the schools in step with progress in the scientific study of the health needs of pupils.

Children and world tensions *Growing up in an Anxious Age* is the title of the 1952 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. This book deals with the problems and anxieties of children and youth of the present generation. It is based on the assumption that children are aware of the confusion of international relations and the attendant dislocations of normal conditions of life in homes and communities and that they worry about the possible consequences of interracial conflicts, rising inflation, social insecurity, national defense, unemployment, or broken homes. With these considerations in mind, the Executive Committee of the ASCD planned the yearbook with the aid of experts in a variety of the professions concerned with child welfare. A committee of educators accepted responsibility for implementing the ideas suggested by the experts. The completed volume represents the

combined efforts of thirty-four specialists, including educators, psychiatrists, anthropologists, sociologists, guidance counselors, social workers, psychologists, and pediatricians.

Although the yearbook emphasizes the importance of meeting more adequately the needs of children in a world of anxiety, the authors of the yearbook take occasion to point out that the role of the schools in American culture is even now the subject of vigorous debate and that it is always easier to point out weaknesses in school programs than to correct them. Moreover, it is noted that forces outside the school are continuously exerting influences on the children whose social and personal development the school is endeavoring to further by means of carefully planned learning experiences. These specialists believe, however, that there are certain attainable objectives of American education which may well be expected to lessen the tensions experienced by young people as a result of the apparent futility of many of the efforts of nations and institutions engaged in the task of restoring order and comity in areas of national and international disturbance.

The suggestions of these authorities appear in the fifteen stimulating chapters of the yearbook. Five of the chapters, constituting Section I, identify the manifestations of the anxiety of the age in which children of this generation are growing up and explain how children are affected by such occurrences. Section II describes the be-

havior patterns which adult societies expect their children to achieve and explains how these behaviors are learned. Section III deals with continuity and change in a technological world. Section IV explains how relationships develop between the individual and his associates, with consideration for the part that the school may play in promoting desirable relationships.

The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development is a department of the National Education Association. Copies of the ASCD Yearbook may be ordered through the office of the NEA, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. The price is \$3.50.

Training for The National Council citizenship for the Social Studies is likewise a department of the NEA. Its Twenty-first Yearbook, *The Teaching of Contemporary Affairs*, was published in November, 1951. As would be expected of the title here mentioned, this yearbook essays the task of demonstrating the proposition that "something can be done by formal educational action in the interests of social control." That is, the aim in the teaching of contemporary affairs is the cultivation of the understanding and the attitudes of American youth in the direction of a sense of responsibility for the nature and purposes of his own society.

The major divisions of the yearbook are devoted to (1) a characterization of the types of attainment toward

which the development of student opinion should be aimed; (2) the identification of appropriate goals of instruction at different stages of the student's progress through the schools, specifically, the goals of the elementary-school, the high-school, and the junior-college grades; and (3) the description of the materials and methods which are best adapted to the use of a contemporary-affairs approach to the study of problems of social organization. In all phases of the discussion of these problems, the basic concepts of American citizenship are emphasized.

This yearbook is available at \$3.00 a copy in cloth binding, or \$2.50 in paper covers. The address of the National Council is 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

Two parts of NSSE yearbook The National Society for the Study of Education published its yearbook for 1952 in February. As is usually true of this series of yearbooks, there are two volumes dealing with different subjects but designated Parts I and II of the Fifty-first Yearbook of the Society.

Part I, entitled *General Education*, undertakes to explain and interpret the fundamental issues, principles, and problems pertaining to representative collegiate programs that have been devised especially for purposes of general education. To this end, the volume analyzes the conceptual foundations of properly defined programs of general education as these foundations are reflected in the proposals and

procedures of influential schools of thought in philosophy, psychology, and sociology; considers the role of the humanities, the social sciences, and the natural sciences in furthering the aims of general education; stresses the importance of adapting instruction to the intellectual and social interests and needs of youth in a democratic society; characterizes the observable contributions of the general-education movement; explains the significance of particular forms of organization of general-education programs; and offers suggestions regarding the preparation of teachers for such programs.

Part II of the Fifty-first Yearbook of the National Society is a general treatise on *Education in Rural Communities*. It was the aim of the yearbook committee to examine our systems of rural education with respect to their contribution to the improvement of the social and economic outlook of the people who live in rural communities. Accordingly, this yearbook explains the role of the schools in the personal development and social orientation of rural youth; describes the potential services of school programs adapted to the needs and interests of children in a rural environment; cites examples of the upgrading of rural schools through such measures as the reorganization of administrative units, co-operative procedures in curriculum revision, the selection and training of capable teachers and administrators, and the use of appropriate methods of evaluating the work of the schools. A chapter is devoted to

the discussion of opportunities for the further improvement and extension of the services of the schools in rural communities. A comprehensive bibliography covering the major problems of rural education is provided.

The two volumes of this yearbook are available on order to the University of Chicago Press at \$3.50 for each volume in cloth binding, or \$2.75 in paper covers.

ANNUAL CONFERENCE ON READING

THE Fifteenth Annual Conference on Reading at the University of Chicago will be held on June 25-28, 1952, inclusive. It will focus attention on "Improving Reading in All Curriculum Areas." In the planning of the conference, special effort is being made to give detailed attention to the problems faced at the secondary-school level.

In the opening session the importance and challenge of the theme will be treated by J. Harlan Shores, University of Illinois; the problems faced in improving reading in various curriculum fields, by William S. Gray, University of Chicago; and steps in organizing for a school-wide attack on the problem, by Earle W. Wiltse, superintendent of schools at Grand Island, Nebraska. The subsequent general sessions on July 25 and 26 will be concerned with the following topics:

Conditions Essential for Effective Learning through Reading, TED RAGSDALE, Southern Illinois University

Nature of the Reading Materials Needed To Facilitate Progress, BERNICE E. LEARY,

Department of Curriculum, Madison Public Schools

How Cope with Deficiencies in Basic Reading Skills That Block Progress, GERALD A. YOAKAM, University of Pittsburgh

The Role of Reading in Different Curriculum Designs, GORDON N. MACKENZIE, Teachers College, Columbia University

Reading Problems Growing out of Differences in the Language Used in Different Curriculum Areas, LOU LABRANT, New York University

Coping with Reading Difficulties: A Joint Responsibility of Author, Editor, and Teacher, ARTHUR F. GIDDINGS, editor, Laidlaw Brothers, Chicago

Following each of the foregoing sessions there will be separate sectional meetings for junior high school teachers and for teachers in senior high schools and junior colleges, in which the following problems will be considered:

Adjusting Learning Activities and Reading Materials to Differences in Mental Capacity, Reading Ability, and Developmental Needs, LEO FAY, State University Teachers College, Cortland, New York, and PHYLLIS BLAND, Evanston Township High School

Methods of Promoting Growth in and through Reading in Core Curriculums, ROLAND FAUNCE, Wayne University, and JOHN HANSON, University of Illinois

Methods of Increasing Competence in Understanding the Language and Construing the Meaning of What Is Read, RALPH COOKE, curriculum director, Public Schools, Fond du Lac, Wisconsin, and MILTON COHLER, principal, Waller High School, Chicago

On Friday and Saturday, July 27 and 28, the program will center attention on specific problems faced in four

curriculum areas. The general sessions will consider pointedly:

What Are the Goals of Instruction and the Sequence of Learning Activities and Skills?

- a) In Science, PHILIP G. JOHNSON, Specialist for Science, Office of Education, Federal Security Agency
- b) In Mathematics, F. LYNWOOD WREN, George Peabody College for Teachers
- c) In Social Studies, PAUL HANNA, Stanford University, and CLYDE F. KOHN, Northwestern University
- d) In Literature, DORA V. SMITH, University of Minnesota

Each of these presentations will be followed by a panel discussion of the nature of the interpretations in reading needed to achieve the goals sought in the respective fields.

These subjects will also be considered by the following speakers before sectional meetings:

- a) Science, AUDRY S. LINDSEY, University High School, University of Illinois, and CHARLOTTE GRANT, Oak Park and River Forest High School, Oak Park, Illinois
- b) Mathematics, KENNETH B. HENDERSON, University of Illinois
- c) Social Studies, JEAN FAIR, University High School, University of Illinois, and FRANCES H. FERRELL, Division of Curriculum Development, Chicago Public Schools
- d) Literature, JOSEPH C. GAINSBURG, principal, William Cowper Junior High School, Maspeth, New York, and JOHN GEHLMANN, Oak Park and River Forest High School, Oak Park, Illinois

Paralleling the sectional meetings for specific subjects, there will be a session for high-school and junior-college teachers of other subjects, which will consider at length the vari-

ous reading problems faced by content teachers.

Of special interest to principals, heads of departments, and superintendents will be the administrative and supervisory section, concerned with the following issues:

How To Determine the Efficiency of Reading in Various Curriculum Areas and Improvements Needed, CHARLES M. ALLEN, principal, University High School, University of Illinois

What Are the Difficulties and Barriers to Improvement and How Can They Be Anticipated and Met? C. W. SANFORD, University of Illinois

How To Aid a Staff in Securing the Understandings Needed To Improve Reading, DOROTHY E. COOKE, Bureau of Instruction, New York State Education Department

Nature of the Administrative Steps and Curriculum Provisions Needed in Adjusting Instruction to Individual Differences, EARL H. HANSON, Superintendent of Schools, Rock Island, Illinois

How Can Adequate Library Facilities Be Provided? A. W. GILBERT, Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Instruction, Kansas City, Missouri

What Procedures Are Effective in Helping Teachers Plan and Direct Reading Activities? JOSEPH C. GAINSBURG, Chairman, Reading Curriculum Committee, Maspeth, New York

How Efforts To Improve Reading in Curriculum Fields Can Be Co-ordinated with Other Aspects of a Sound Reading Program, PAUL WITTY, Northwestern University

All teachers and administrative officers interested in the foregoing problems are cordially invited to attend the conference. Copies of the program

and detailed information concerning fees, rooming facilities, and procedures in registering can be secured from Professor William S. Gray, University of Chicago.

FAMILY-LIFE EDUCATION WORKSHOP

THE FAMILY-LIFE Education Workshop to be held at the University of Chicago will provide an unusual summer experience for teachers and counselors. The theme of this workshop is "The Development of Interpersonal Competence." Six areas of interpersonal competence will receive attention: emotional and sexual health and hygiene, economy and style in spending and saving, empathy in family relationships, child development and personality integration, education, family recreation, and personal creativity.

The workshop will be held from August 11 through August 29. It will be directed by Nelson N. Foote, director of the Family Study Center. For those who attend the workshop, living accommodations can be obtained in

one of the University's dormitories or in near-by hotels. The extensive libraries and other facilities of the University of Chicago are available, as well as many recreational resources.

Admission to the workshop is by invitation, but inquiries are welcomed. Address Nelson N. Foote, University of Chicago, Chicago 37, Illinois.

CONFERENCE ON GUIDANCE AND PERSONNEL SERVICES

PRESENTATION and analysis of programs of guidance and personnel in schools and colleges will be the general theme of the Sixteenth Annual Conference on Guidance and Personnel Services in Schools, Colleges, and Related Organizations, which will be held on Thursday and Friday, June 26-27, at the University of Chicago. Those interested in attending the conference may obtain programs from Robert C. Woellner, Administration Building, University of Chicago, Chicago 37, Illinois.

NELSON B. HENRY

WHO'S WHO FOR MAY

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by NELSON B.

HENRY, professor of education at the University of Chicago. BRENDA LANSDOWN, on the staff of the Department of Education at Brooklyn College, describes the program offered in a mathematics methods course whereby teacher-training students tutor retarded elementary-school pupils in mathematics and explains the success of the program as shown by pupils' progress and students' learning. FLORENCE GREENHOE ROBBINS, member of the Departments of Sociology and Education at Ohio State University, describes an experiment setting up three kinds of social atmospheres in three college courses to study the effects that changes in climates would have on individuals and groups. RAYMOND E. SCHULTZ, assistant professor of education at the University of Illinois, in a study of the cost of sending pupils to high school, shows that lower income groups must spend an appreciably greater per cent of their net income on "fixed" expenses to keep children in school than do higher income groups, and he recommends action at the local school level aimed at reducing the cost in order to provide more equitable educational opportunities for a greater number of

children. RALPH ADAMS BROWN, chairman of the Social Studies Department at State Teachers College, Cortland, New York, suggests a number of sources that social-studies teachers could use in gathering material for teaching local history. HAROLD H. PUNKE, professor of education at Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Auburn, Alabama, reports a study on the extent of formal education of 185 librarians in 125 public, private, and church junior colleges throughout the country. A list of selected references on educational psychology is presented by ERNEST A. HAGGARD, associate professor of educational psychology at the University of Chicago, and JAMES V. MITCHELL, JR., formerly research assistant in educational psychology at the same institution.

Reviewers of books CARROLL D. CHAMPLIN, professor of education at Pennsylvania State College. DOUGLAS S. WARD, acting professor of education at the University of Virginia. BERNARD FARBER, research associate in the Department of Sociology, University of Chicago. JEAN FAIR, instructor in social studies in the University High School of the University of Illinois. BRUCE GUILD, principal of Iron Mountain Junior-Senior High School, Iron Mountain, Michigan.

TUTORING EXPERIENCE FOR STUDENTS IN METHODS COURSES

BRENDA LANSDOWN
Brooklyn College



WHEN MORE than a hundred college students unanimously agree (through written evaluations prepared anonymously) that an activity of a course is valuable, the activity deserves the attention of every teacher of methods courses, especially those who believe that practice must follow the learning of theory.

The idea that was first put into action at Brooklyn College by Professors Carleton Washburne and Helen Brell was to have each student in a course in "Methods of Teaching Reading in the Elementary School" tutor one pupil from the elementary-school grades who was below standard in reading. The writer has used this practice in teaching the methods of both reading and mathematics. Only the program used in the mathematics methods course will be described here, but the success in both areas is similar.

INITIATING THE PROGRAM

How is such a program initiated? These are the steps taken in the writer's methods course, but the procedure would be typical of any similar program.

Steps to be followed.—One first gains the co-operation of a principal of an elementary school. Obtaining this co-operation is not difficult since everyone will benefit. After consulting the supervisor and the teachers in his school, the principal obtains a list of pupils from one or more grades who need individual help in mathematics.

In the meantime, the college students begin a discussion of the course content and are offered the opportunity to tutor twice a week as the main work for the semester. They set up guides for keeping objective day-to-day records of their visits. These are handed in to the instructor, who keeps a close watch on the progress of student and pupil;¹ makes suggestions; or initiates discussions with the whole class, with small groups, or with the individual student, of the problems that arise.

The student confers with the principal of the school at a time that is mutually convenient. He is handed a slip of paper bearing the name of a

¹ Throughout the article, the tutor from the college will be designated by the term *student* and the elementary-school child by the term *pupil*.

pupil needing special help and the room number where the pupil is to be found. During the first two visits, the student sits in the classroom where the teacher, having been given the slip, calls on the child concerned by name, so that the student may observe the pupil without his being aware of the scrutiny.

Session with pupil.—On the third visit the child is told that someone has come to help him with his mathematics, and student and pupil go off together to a teachers' room or office to which they have been assigned. Sometimes the only place available is the indoor playground, where many other activities are in progress. It is a tribute to the tutoring program that the child usually prefers to work with the student rather than letting his eyes and interests wander.

For the first session alone together, the rule is not to try to teach any subject matter but merely to get acquainted, on the ground that good teaching takes place in an atmosphere where the pupil wants to learn. Such an atmosphere can be created only by a friendly association. Sometimes the child is shy and will not talk, so that the student's ingenuity is taxed to accomplish something worth while during this first all-important hour. This situation is illustrated by a quotation from a student's report:

I was lucky to get a pupil who was shy towards strangers because it showed me the difficulty a teacher has in reaching all of his pupils. It took quite a while for me to get

Bruce to react to me. . . . (I reached Bruce only when he realized I wasn't a teacher and he could be free with me.) I'm quite convinced about the need for a friendly, democratic atmosphere in which to teach children.

Occasionally, in an extreme case, the student is forced to begin talking about school work, but we note a little later in the record that the first time the pupil mentions a movie or his dog or a fight, the student lends an encouraging ear. Soon the child says, "Let's not work today, let's talk." At this point the reaction of the student almost always is, "Yes, let's," and the story of the child's fears and joys, loves and hates comes pouring out. One student wrote:

Peter asked me if I heard a certain program on Tuesday nights. I told him I am not home Tuesday nights as I am a group leader. He wanted to know what I did. I told him that the girls come to me with all kinds of problems and I try to help them find answers. Peter eyed me very quietly for a few minutes. I broke the silence by telling him that I would do the same for him if he had any problems. He turned away, blushed, and said: "I have a serious problem but you will probably laugh like the others do." I promised I wouldn't so he turned to me and told me his problem. It seems two girls in the neighborhood always chase him and call him up. He said, "They are annoying pests." I let him talk on and on, asking one or two leading questions. He then told me he would just ignore [the girls]. He looked up, smiled, and said, "Thanks for listening."

Only occasionally has the author found recorded, after a child had asked to talk rather than to work, a

lecture on the morals and virtues of hard study and the good use of school time. Interestingly enough, it turned out, upon questioning, that these students had not yet finished the full complement of prescribed courses in psychology. The sum total of the preliminary courses in education seems to have relation to the tutoring program. One of the most frequent comments by the students at the end of the semester is, "It has helped me apply all the educational principles I have been exposed to."

LEARNING BY ACTUAL PRACTICE

With the New Developmental Mathematics Program now being instituted in the schools of New York City, it is important that young people have practice teaching in a manner which they themselves had never experienced and which goes contrary to much of their thinking. Progress is slow between discussion in college of methods and the time when the student adopts them for his own. In his record, one student stated, "Each lesson taught me something." But it taught the student just what had already been "taught" in the college class. He did not "learn" the lesson until he used it himself.

It had been agreed that any statement in a student's record that departed from facts would be labeled "opinion." The particular statement quoted in the previous paragraph was written by a student whose first records were full of opinions, although,

contrary to agreement, not labeled as such. Her next record contained wild assumptions, and she neglected to emphasize any mathematical concepts. Later she developed a good, logical approach but, as shown by the record, did not relate the mathematical problems to anything in the life of the child. Finally, she discussed problems in real-life situations, the discovery of principles by the child, and told about the thinking-through of mathematical relationships by her pupil. The fact that the students do not learn merely by hearing about a method, but by doing and being caught up in their errors, impresses on them the idea that the same process takes place with their pupils. This is shown in the following excerpt from a record:

A short review at the following meeting would often prove that the explanations and methods had not "sunk in" to the skull of my guinea pig.

Learning to make an objective record comes slowly:

Of no small importance was the idea of learning how to take anecdotal notes . . . for I knew nothing of keeping a notebook and of relating only the valid material. It is obvious to see by my notes that I started to tutor as a real rank amateur, and it was only after several weeks had elapsed that my book began to have some value.

BENEFITS TO STUDENTS

What other learning takes place for the college students while they explore this small-scale teaching experience? For one thing, it has given them an

insight into the needs of children. They expressed observations such as the following:

For the first time, I have directly observed how small children act, how they feel about things, what they like and dislike, what they talk about, and what problems they encounter in school.

More than anything else, it has given me confidence.

Tutoring has helped me become more sensitive to the needs and moods of a child and to plan my lessons accordingly. I have learned to change my program momentarily because I felt that the child was not up to drill.

It sometimes happens that a student reaches the school to find another activity in progress—a party or a movie. What shall he do then? The students prove that they are sensitive to the situation. One young man recorded this incident, with his ensuing reflections, when one bright April day he found his pupil playing baseball:

The laughing, excited group of boys playing ball seemed far removed from the cares of school work. . . . I asked Dick if he wanted to go upstairs for an arithmetic lesson. . . . Motto: Arithmetic will never replace baseball in the hearts of full-blooded American youngsters.

A little saddened by his fruitless journey (for like many Juniors and Seniors, his time was carefully budgeted), he asked himself on the way back to the college whether his time had really been wasted. He concluded that his experience had taught him a sound educational principle: "Lack of

motivation and interest and enthusiasm for a lesson at a certain time is sure to make that lesson much less successful than if the proper motivation and interest were there."

The students gain a rare understanding of children and their learning processes. One wrote:

As a result I became more relaxed with Richard and did not "push" him for answers. We worked slowly at times, more slowly than I could have thought possible for me to endure without screaming. Last, but not least, I always kept in mind that I must let Richard *discover* things for himself whenever possible.

One sixth-grade boy was considered "slow" by his grade teacher in a class of the slowest children. His mother thought him lazy, and his father wanted to help his son with the work. The boy said, "School is OK, but I'd like to dump it in the ocean." The tutor found him interested in astronomy so took him to the planetarium during the Christmas holidays. She let him handle the money and check the change. The pupil learned that "arithmetic does come in handy!" When the lecturer asked which three planets were in the sky, this lad was the only one who knew! The tutor wrote:

John was interested in everything. He seemed to drink everything in. He was especially interested in the prehistoric animals.

She began to ponder on the nature of "slowness"!

Does the tutoring program involve

reading for the students, and do they meet any intellectual challenge? Probably more so than in a class where assignments are less motivated. Their reports, telling about the research they had to do to understand concepts thoroughly, attest to this fact:

Tutoring is a very fascinating and intellectually stimulating process.

It caused me to do some research on phases of arithmetic which I didn't understand myself and so enabled me to clarify the concepts in my own mind.

I read the whole book. For me it was a kind of dream world where theories that the Board of Education talks about are applied.

BENEFITS TO INSTRUCTOR AND GRADE-SCHOOL TEACHER

While the student gains invaluable benefits, so does the college instructor. He is assured of a group of students with live material to discuss, students who will work intensively and purposefully. Whenever an occasional student "forgets" his appointment or does not warm to a child, a little discussion usually reveals that the student is wavering in his desire to be a teacher. The tutoring contact with a child brings his planning to a critical point.

The classroom teacher in the public school also profits from the program because the pupils with the worst problems are given the individual instruction which they need and for which the teacher has no time. Often the teacher reports improved classroom behavior in general, as well as improved mathematics scores.

BENEFITS TO PUPILS

What of the pupils? What do they gain from this seemingly "inexperienced" teaching?

The first time I tried this program, the public school—kindergarten through Grade VIII—requested tutoring help for a number of pupils in the graduating class who had failed in mathematics and who were retarded several years in that subject. At that time the tutoring took place only once a week (now it is twice), and during the school year each pupil had two different tutors, one for each semester. There were gaps in the vacation period between semesters. Even with this meager and changing attention given the pupils, they made the most astonishing gains. As measured by the city-wide achievement tests administered a year apart, gains for twenty-three pupils ranged from none to six years and nine months, with one case showing a loss of five months. This loss might be explained by the fact that this pupil was in the process of having his glasses changed during the second test, for he obtained marks of 80 per cent and 90 per cent in class quizzes. The two pupils who made no gain and only a two-month gain, respectively, were in a group with very low intelligence quotients and had probably attained their zenith.

REASONS FOR SUCCESS OF THE PROGRAM

Of course, one cannot lay the gains entirely to the tutoring. It is quite certain that the students had neither

the necessary equipment nor the number of sessions with the pupils that would be required to advance any one child through five or six years' work. A little sympathetic, individual attention often produces big gains, and the effectiveness of the tutoring should be measured according to the extent to which the gains are maintained through high school. It is still too early to know this.

One hypothesis of the reasons for the gains is that the pupils acquired increased motivation and a better understanding of mathematical processes. The latter assertion is based on this interesting observation: The students discovered that, although their pupils were being exposed to per cents and discounts in class, they had no *concept* of the decimal system. They did not realize, for instance, that when "borrowing" (to use the outmoded term), one was really breaking open a bundle of ten or exchanging one ten for ten ones. All of them who knew the quick way to multiply by ten said they "added a zero." None of them conceived that each column to the left was worth ten times the value of that to the right and that, therefore, in multiplying by ten, the figures were moved over one column to the left.

What the students did for the pupils was (1) to establish an atmosphere in which the pupil wanted to learn and (2) to give them some conceptual understanding of the decimal system. With these foundations, the pupils paid more attention to the class teacher and understood better his

explanations of per cents and decimals.

Supporting this hypothesis are the words of the pupils themselves, when asked by the teacher their opinion of the tutoring program: "Helps give good background; explanations go *under* the examples." "Tells not only how, but why."

Since these were largely eighth-grade boys, the following reaction to attractive twenty-year-old girls is to be expected: "Charm of the teacher makes arithmetic interesting."

VALUE OF THE PROGRAM

These results give food for thought. Since the new Developmental Program is based on the pupils' slow but thorough understanding of fundamental concepts which they discover themselves by thinking through ways of approaching each relationship, it seems likely that this new crop of pupils will have fewer failures who must relearn fundamentals in the later grades.

Another of the key essentials in the Developmental Program is the use of varied representative material as long as the child needs it. Hence, rows of beads, abaci, and fraction "pies" are now as common in the classroom as the experiential reading chart. The college students taking part in the tutoring program become creative in making representative material for their pupils' needs.

An interesting confirmation of the value of the tutoring program is seen each term in the objective examina-

tion given to all students taking the course in "Methods of Teaching Reading and Arithmetic." Those in the sections that offer the tutoring regularly skew the curve at the high end. In the January, 1952, examination, 220 students were tested. The mean score for all students in the course was 27.7; for the students in the tutoring section, it was slightly over 30. The highest score in non-tutoring sections was 33 (one student); in the tutoring section, the highest score was 36 (three students). The number of students below the course mean in the tutoring section was three out of a total of 29 students.

Other instructors using the tutoring program obtained similar results. One teacher had her students tutor read-

ing. Her test results also skewed at the high end and showed only seven below the course mean.

The effect of the tutoring program also reveals itself in the relations between student and pupil. Both student and pupil find parting at the end of the semester distressing. The students usually cushion the shock with a little party of candy sticks, ice cream, and games, or sometimes the student arranges a trip. After that, they may exchange telephone numbers with the invitation to the pupil to "call me any time you need help."

Certainly the students learn much more from the addition of the tutoring program than they would by theoretical studies alone. On this they all agree, and the unanimity of over a hundred students is highly significant.

THE IMPACT OF SOCIAL CLIMATES UPON A COLLEGE CLASS

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SOCIAL CLIMATES and their impacts on children in play groups and in classroom situations have been the subjects of a number of experiments. So far as the writer knows, however, little, if any, experimentation has been done with adults in college classes. Perhaps the reason for this lack is that experimentation at this level may mean risking one's reputation, as well as the friendship of adults who do not relish being guinea pigs. Likewise, the welfare of the students must be considered; a certain amount of basic materials must be guaranteed to all the students regardless of the classroom climate. Furthermore, the experimenter must be able to remain sufficiently objective that he is not unduly influenced by any unpleasant experiences which may result.

PURPOSE AND DESIGN OF THIS STUDY

With these considerations in mind, the present study was devised. The aim was to discover what impact three kinds of social climates would have on a college class as a whole and on individuals in the class. The three social climates set up were (1) democratic,

(2) laissez faire, and (3) autocratic. After careful study of the literature and in consultation with three experts, the investigator drew up the list of characteristics shown on pages 276-77 as a guide for establishing and promoting each type of social atmosphere.

In the winter quarter, the class for the course met in three sections because of its size. Each section met for a fifty-minute period on four days a week for ten weeks.

Each group started with the "democratic" social climate. Three weeks and two days later, the first experimental group (to be designated hereafter as the "one o'clock group") was shifted sharply to the laissez faire atmosphere, and then, three weeks and two days before the end of the term, was again shifted to a distinctly autocratic atmosphere. The second experimental group (the two o'clock section) started likewise with the democratic procedure but maintained it for five weeks. The laissez faire climate then obtained until the end of the quarter. The third group (the four o'clock section) carried the democratic concept and process throughout the quarter.

Study materials of all kinds were

CHARACTERISTICS OF THREE SOCIAL CLIMATES SET UP IN CLASSES OF COLLEGE STUDENTS

DEMOCRATIC SOCIAL CLIMATE

1. Aims and procedures a matter of group decision under teacher leadership. Alternatives suggested, advice given, not dictation.

2. Students chose own work partners freely on basis of interest or acquaintance and organized themselves. If students desired, as much help and time were given by teacher as needed.

3. Teacher remained a group participant in discussion, with most of actual work being done by students.

4. Decisions of group were honored in all details.

5. Appointments between teacher and students were many, arranged conveniently for both, and religiously kept.

6. All papers, etc., promptly returned with oral or written comments. Class used them as learning situation for student inquiries to benefit all.

7. Ample time given for project presentation, discussion, etc. Shared experiences, constructive criticisms to aid in written report, with teacher seated and participating only as another class member and resource person.

LAISSEZ FAIRE SOCIAL CLIMATE

1. Aims and procedures not clearly defined (class in project phase). No clarity as to expectations from students.

2. Students chose work partners at random. No plan given them to help in the work. Students organized or not as they chose.

3. Teacher remained detached from the group. Impersonal relations but not unfriendly.

4. Teacher "forgot" or thought students had forgotten earlier decisions, so confusion led to other actions.

5. No set office hours. Appointments put off, "procrastination."

6. Slow or no return of papers.

7. Project presentation times not carefully planned according to number in group, content, etc. Hence, often no time for discussion or comment. Teacher sat apart in back of room, no comments pro or con.

AUTOCRATIC SOCIAL CLIMATE

1. Aims and procedures dictated by teacher. No consideration given to student participation.

2. Teacher insisted on delegating both people and tasks to be done.

3. Teacher remained not only detached but traditionally on defensive if decisions were questioned.

4. Decisions of group made in earlier democratic phases were reversed summarily by teacher.

5. Appointments were made at convenience of teacher only.

6. Teacher announced papers would not be returned. No comments, just marks.

7. Time of presentation and amount of time for projects decided by teacher without consulting students. During presentation teacher sat aloof at front or back, obviously "the teacher," not a class member. Gave only sharp, destructive comments and criticisms.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THREE SOCIAL CLIMATES SET UP IN CLASSES OF COLLEGE STUDENTS—*Continued*

DEMOCRATIC SOCIAL CLIMATE	LAISSEZ FAIRE SOCIAL CLIMATE	AUTOCRATIC SOCIAL CLIMATE
8. In appraising projects, students used an objective sheet or were free to modify.	8. Appraisal forms handed out. No directions. Questions evasively answered or ignored.	8. Appraisal forms directed to be used as presented regardless of other forums, round tables, skits, reports, etc.
9. No tests as such, but dates when papers were due clearly set and kept.	9. Tests allowed to "slide" and then taken if wanted outside class time or while other members were giving projects.	9. Form and time of tests changed from that chosen by class during democratic phase, and one extra test added at "last moment."
10. Project marks carefully tabulated and reported.	10. Infrequent reporting of marks to students.	10. Frequent reporting of marks, twice inaccurate, with refusal to check.

held constant for all three groups. Variants were in the area of class atmosphere only.

COMPOSITION OF THE GROUPS

The total enrolment in the three sections was eighty-seven students. Forty-eight were graduate students,¹ and the rest were undergraduates with Junior and Senior standing. The one o'clock group was composed of thirty-five students, undergraduate and graduate. The seminar group of graduate standing—the four o'clock section—included twenty-two students; the two o'clock section, thirty. All but four students were majors in the College of Education or in the child-development curriculum of the School of Home Economics.

When checked casually in the early

¹ The term "graduate student" includes also irregular students or those beyond the Bachelor's degree who were qualifying for graduate school.

days of the course, all students defined their major areas of study as democratic in procedure and their professors as supporters of democratic social structuring and democratic social processes in the classroom.

CLASS PROCEDURE

Since the course selected for study had had a democratic tradition, guides and student bulletins which had been prepared for previous classes were handed to all three groups. The distribution of the bulletins and brief introductory statements set the stage for initial organization of the three sections of the class under a democratic scheme. Each section discussed and selected its class procedures. Probably because of the similar backgrounds of the students, there was easy consensus in each group.

By the end of the first week, all organizational work was out of the way,

and the course work was in full swing in all groups. Climates were then varied at previously determined times.

RECORDING CHANGES IN INDIVIDUALS AND GROUPS

Techniques used.—The investigator's interest centered in what happened both to individuals and to groups when the social climate was changed at a defined time and in a defined manner. Techniques for recording the result included course marks (on tests and projects), anecdotal records kept by the instructor, appraisal check lists submitted by the students at the end of the course, and later conferences with students.

Classification of students.—Since it was impossible to observe and record every student's behavior, key persons were selected in each group during the first week. They were defined as *co-operative*, *antagonistic*, and *indifferent*.

A student was defined as *co-operative* if he was attentive to class discussions, eager to contribute to group planning and endeavor, helpful to working members of his group by offering kindly, constructive comments and criticisms. He was defined as *antagonistic* if he was over-aggressive, noisy, careless of other's opinions when expressing his own, and generally hypercritical. Sheer disagreement did not constitute antagonism. He was defined as *indifferent* if he was inattentive, came to class late or not at all without excuse, and failed to contribute in any observable way to his group or to class discussions.

The selections were made on the basis of careful observation of classroom behavior, office contacts, and many casual before-and-after class contacts. If it be objected that this is a highly subjective selection, the defense offered is that a study of effects upon the individual will have to include the teacher as a personality in the social situation, and the definition that he is able to give will largely define the situation for both student and teacher.

Roles assumed by instructor.—The degree of success or failure of any experiment such as this is closely related to the enactment of the roles by the experimenter. Considerable time and attention, therefore, were given to rehearsal of facial expressions, voice tone and timbre, as well as wording of verbal interactions. It was necessary, also, to remember to which class group students belonged when meeting them outside the class.

Obviously, such role continuity and consistency are difficult in any climate, but especially so in the *laissez faire* and autocratic areas when the experimenter is personally committed to a democratic belief. It is probable, then, that the human element may have entered as a limitation. However, the roles appear to have been successfully implemented, for not one student reported ever having thought of the situation as an experiment. In fact, a few of the students, perhaps irked at having been "guinea pigs," still think there was no experiment. They say, "The class went to pot, and this is the

teacher's attempt to retrieve the situation." Perhaps this sort of response is one of the best evidences of the success of the role enactment.

ACCOUNT OF EVENTS

It has often seemed to the writer that a brief description of criteria, procedures, and so on is likely to be a dry account showing little or none of the interpersonal relationships, the human angles, and the general "feel" of what goes on. Accordingly, at the risk of destroying scientific reporting, a running account follows which is meant to highlight the students' observations by presenting a few of the anecdotes.

Beginning of term.—All three classes began informally, time being allowed to learn one another's names and something of their backgrounds. As mentioned earlier, the planning period was shorter than the time allotted because of easy consensus within the groups.

Day after day there were no absences or at the most, one or two. Students who were absent seemed constrained to explain why, although they were never asked to do so.

There was much movement in the rooms prior to the dismissal bell, with accompanying laughter and generally relaxed interchanges between students and between students and the teacher, who moved about casually. At the end of the class, groups of from three to twelve students collected around the desk and in discussions of their own. These were usually relevant to something discussed during the class hour.

The hour went rapidly with a lively discussion of "issues," not just vaporous opinions. Students appeared in the instructor's office frequently and generally gave evidence of having an interesting experience.

The indifferent students were observed to "perk up" both in class participation and in outside interaction. Two of the antagonistic students thawed gradually, if reluctantly. One came to the office to talk over a point of difference and thereafter was a helpful, though not always "agreeing," class member. The second ceased to "object strongly" and phrased his remarks instead in such terms as, "I'm not sure I get that point, could we . . .?" The third continued doubting but was no longer openly belligerent.

Purely democratic atmosphere.—In the section which continued democratic throughout, a happy, relaxed feeling obtained throughout the term. On the anonymous appraisal sheets, only one student was sharply critical. Several used the "sandwich" technique of interspersing criticisms and commendations, and in every case it seemed to the instructor that the comments and criticisms were warranted, constructive, and helpful. More than half of the students were gratifyingly commendatory.

Laissez faire atmosphere.—When the day came for the laissez faire atmosphere to be introduced in the two experimental groups, the instructor carefully studied the criteria for the new role behavior and started it going

by coming to class just as the bell rang, sat quietly with little or no comment, gave no directions when questions were asked, and left with the sound of the bell. By the third day it was evident that the behavior was contagious. Fewer students came to class early, and almost no one tried to engage in conversation after class.

The committees were not so enthusiastic and spontaneous as their predecessors, although it was noted that the committees contained students who had previously been active and able participants. The hour dragged; students yawned; and some slouched in their seats. Others were obviously reading other lessons or catching up on their correspondence. The decline in rapport, performance, and friendly relations was so quick and sharp as to amaze even the instructor.

During this period the antagonistic students showed signs of reverting to their earlier roles. The indifferent ones lost the interest and participation they had been developing, and even the cooperative students slid into the indifferent area.

Absences became frequent. Not only were certain students often absent or late, but more of them were absent from time to time and without bothering to explain why. One committee came to class in so disintegrated a fashion that after twenty minutes it "folded" completely, and the class filed out silently.

Authoritarian atmosphere.—The onset of the authoritarian atmosphere was like the proverbial dash of cold

water. The teacher walked in quickly, knocked on the desk sharply for order, and delivered a stinging rebuke to the students on their "noisy and uncouth behavior," recent poor work, and general attitude.

The effect was immediate. Everyone sat up straight and became attentive. No one said a word, but there was evidence of subtle communication between students which said in effect, "Now what?"

By the time the authoritarian atmosphere had been in effect two days, orders had already been handed down concerning a test—when it would be taken, etc. Reports of two project groups had been severely criticized. By both student and teacher ratings, these reports were of about the same level as those which on previous days had received different treatment.

On the third day of the autocratic atmosphere, the teacher walked in late. There was a subdued hum all over the room. That day it was like the angry buzz of bees, instead of the unrestrained conversational air formerly evident. The teacher rapped sharply on the desk for attention—a gesture which was completely unnecessary under the democratic phase and which became increasingly necessary under the laissez faire phase. Unlike the situation in the laissez faire phase, however, the class came to attention at once.

The committee proceeded with its presentation. The committee membership included one student defined earlier as an indifferent student and

one defined as antagonistic. As mentioned earlier, under the democratic climate the indifferent student had become co-operative, but then he relapsed considerably under the laissez faire phase. At this meeting he seemed on the edge of belligerency. He was poorly prepared by any standards and very defensive. His responses to questions from the floor verged on the discourteous.

The antagonistic student, who had never quite achieved identity even in the democratic situation, had moved rapidly past center in his antagonistic responses. Today he was evidently displeased with his associates and possibly with himself.

At the close of the hour, students fairly "boiled" out of the room, leaving their rating sheets of the reports on the instructor's desk. According to earlier agreement, these ratings were to be confidential, and all had carefully avoided looking at the sheets as they were tossed on the desk.

The instructor, who had been sitting apart from the group and had severely criticized the committee's presentation, remained seated instead of coming to the front of the room for a friendly exchange of conversation as the committee collected its materials before leaving. The instructor observed that both the two students mentioned above were surreptitiously looking over the ratings on the sheets. Consequently, this little group was picked to implement further the autocratic climate.

The mark for the committee was re-

ported back at a much earlier time than had been done under the laissez faire scheme. But the mark was reported as one whole step below the actual mark. As the import of the mark sank in, strong emotions were evident on the faces of the committee members. Some other members of the class who earlier had clashed with these two grinned or chortled audibly. One girl, more in sympathy with the wronged students, gasped. Others sat woodenly, as though unbelieving. One small aggregation of six persons began forming around the committee as it left the room. *No one* questioned or commented in the classroom that day.

Two days later the two students who had looked at the rating sheets suggested mildly that they thought there must be a mistake about the mark, "Would the teacher check?" "Yes," the teacher said indifferently, but failed to report back. Three days later the resistance to the mark was stiffer, and this time, inadvertently or not (it would be interesting to know which), both students blurted out that they knew the mark couldn't be right because they had "hastily looked over the sheets and they saw no grades below ———."

The teacher made no reference to their perfidy, simply replying that the tabulator had never been known to make a mistake, and the issue was closed. The intense anger and frustration in their faces and voices were further evidenced by their knocking two chairs against the wall, dropping a book, and banging a door.

By the middle of the second week the entire class atmosphere had changed. Few students smiled as the teacher arrived; fewer came by the desk or office to chat. Chance encounters in the halls or on campus were stilted, highly formal exchanges.

Committee reports began to lack spontaneity, and few or no questions followed them. When the instructor spoke, there was a noticeable turning of heads and attention, as though in dread of what was coming next. Thus, the earlier security and comfortable feeling of the students were no more in evidence.

In spite of this, however, the committees increased their presentation of factual information and of props to support it, such as pictures, etc. Students whom the instructor considered representative said later in interviews that they felt a desperation which caused them to dig deeper but that, while they presented much more factual material, they did not feel that they learned more or that they would remember more later. In fact, all seemed convinced that they would remember the last atmosphere in the class more than anything learned. Interestingly enough, even though they later understood what had been going on, the last atmosphere remained clearest in their minds.

As the close of the quarter came nearer, the sections were reminded that the final page of the class bulletin scheduled a course appraisal sheet which was to be turned in anonymously on the final day. In the class that

maintained a democratic climate throughout the term, there was just one less paper than students. In the class that operated half democratic and half laissez faire, only one-third remembered to turn in appraisals—in itself, a nice commentary on laissez faire procedures.

In the class which finished on the autocratic note, it was evident that something else was taking place. A few students tossed the blanks into the appointed place and took their seats for the final meeting. In the middle of the room a group of about ten seemed to be struggling with an idea. Then one boy (antagonistic) detached himself from the group and rose to say that "the class had chosen to present its appraisal in the form of a letter." At once a shy little girl came forward and handed the letter to the instructor, who accepted it coldly, laid it with the other blanks, and went on with the class. The letter is a very interesting document and is, therefore, presented as written:

This report is submitted in the spirit of democratic procedure as exemplified and fostered by this University. Furthermore, the members of the class are aware of the respect and admiration which you command throughout the University and are merely concerned with certain inconsistencies which have been present in your class this quarter. We feel that:

1. The final is not justified in the light of our original voting.
2. The evaluation sheet is a poor instrument for measuring the group projects.
3. The class should be responsible for developing its own evaluation instrument.

4. All papers should be read, notations made, and returned promptly to students.

5. The mid-terms should be different or the purpose of the same mid-term should be explained to the class.

6. Time should be provided for testing in class hours.

7. Students should be made to feel free to visit your office, and a definite time should be provided for these visits.

8. Your criticism of the projects should be both affirmative and negative.

9. Your terminology should be more within the understanding of the nonspecialists in the class.

10. Democratic procedure should be consistent throughout the course.

Respectfully submitted,

THE CLASS

Several readers of this letter have suggested that the fact that it is unsigned is unfortunate. One must remember, however, that the appraisal blanks were to be anonymous. Apparently, the group felt that anonymity was its prerogative also. The instructor and others consulted in the study carefully considered each criticism and decided that, with the possible exception of Item 9, this letter represented a keen analysis of the class experience in atmosphere.

It may be of interest to know also that, when a letter of explanation about the experiment went out to the students, fewer responded from the group experiencing autocracy than from any other.

OUTCOMES

Obviously, this report must omit descriptions of many aspects of the

experience. But, on the basis of all the evaluating materials, the following generalizations appear, to both students and instructor, to be warranted.

The democratic climate.—During the democratic-climate phase, whether for a shorter or a longer time, relations were relaxed, pleasant, and primary in nature. Students learned one another's names, backgrounds, general interests, and they were appreciative and constructively critical of contributions made in the light of these understandings.

The aggregation of persons took on many group aspects, such as identification with a particular section and pride in the achievements of other committees than their own. A healthy co-operative competition was evident in finding and presenting data beyond the mere "line of duty."

The leader, or teacher in this case, was able to achieve group membership, to operate as a guide and a resource person rather than *the* dominant figure in all performances.

Students reported "feeling accepted," having no fear of embarrassment if mistakes were made, because of a new or reinforced understanding of self and of their relations to other people. They felt that considerable growth took place in ability to respond as group members and that sensitivity was increased to other people's feelings and needs. Three-fourths reported feeling free from domination of "what others think." This seems to add up to a feeling of respect for individuality, one's own as well as others',

and a consequent "we" group, friendly atmosphere, and group identification.

The leadership was thought of as shared leadership rather than as an aggressively dominant one "which narrowed down free movements of group members and thus weakened their power field."

Individual students selected for observation achieved normal or near-normal identification in the democratic atmosphere.

The laissez faire climate.—The group very quickly lost its "we-group" feeling and organization. Interest and activity fell to a minimum. There was a noticeable decline in conversational outlets and general appreciation of the work of others. Committee reports lost zest and scholarly attainment.

The leader was neither dominant nor a group member. The class rapidly became just an aggregation of persons.

Individuals selected for study lost the identification that they had attained or had been approaching and became just other students. Motivation was nil, and so were accomplishments.

The autocratic climate.—The group quickly reverted to a highly competitive endeavor under the prods of the dominantly aggressive leader. The

esprit de corps disappeared between students, as well as between teacher and students. Constructive criticism became painful criticism, or students made no comment at all, evidently because of fear. Autocratic group members were more often in conflict with one another or with the teacher, probably because the class goal was not the individual goal.

The contacts between teacher and students were no longer on an equal social level but were attended with hostility. The group was ostensibly more quiet but also evidenced greater tension.

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

1. Behavior differences, whether individual or group, are not entirely due to individual differences. Social climate is of paramount importance.

2. The group to which one belongs is "home base." A person's relation to the group and his status within it are among the most important factors in his mental and social security.

3. An individual's personal-social aspects of living are suggested and delimited, if not determined, by whatever freedom of movement the group affords him, not only in relation to immediate action, but in terms of planning for future action.

CAN PARENTS AFFORD TO SEND THEIR CHILDREN TO HIGH SCHOOL?

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IS THE PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL truly free and universal in its services to all youth in this country? Do administrative practices tend to favor certain groups of young people?

The foregoing questions prompted a recent investigation involving 4,752 pupils in the first semester and 3,928 in the second semester of the 1949-50 school year in 79 representative Wisconsin high schools ranging in enrolment from fewer than 50 to more than 2,000 pupils. Data were secured to show (1) the cost to pupils of attending high school in Wisconsin, (2) factors affecting these costs, and (3) sociological implications of these costs.¹

PREVIOUS STUDIES OF PUPIL ELIMINATION AND COSTS

Among the earliest studies which attempted to discover the causes of high-school elimination or nonattendance were those made from 1912 to 1915 by Holley. From his three-year study of five Illinois cities he con-

cluded that there was a close relation between the economic and social position of a child's family and the number of years of schooling its children received.²

An extensive study of the selective character of the public high school was reported by Counts in 1922. His findings, similar to those of Holley, revealed a close relation between parental occupation and the privileges of secondary education.³ Another study sponsored by the New York Board of Regents in the late 1930's revealed that the poorer a youth was financially, the sooner he would leave school.⁴

One of the first objective ap-

¹ Charles E. Holley, *The Relationship between Persistence in School and Home Conditions*, p. 119. Fifteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1916.

² George Sylvester Counts, *The Selective Character of American Secondary Education*, pp. 21-54. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 19. Chicago: University of Chicago, 1922.

³ Ruth E. Eckert and Thomas O. Marshall, *When Youth Leave School*, pp. 74-85. The Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1939.

⁴ The complete study is reported in Raymond E. Schultz, "Costs to Pupils of Attending High School in Wisconsin." Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Wisconsin, 1951.

proaches to the problem of costs of attending high school was made by Harold C. Hand. He set forth two hypotheses: (1) that the personal financial cost of high-school attendance is beyond the reach of poorer youth; (2) that participation in the student life of the school is determined by accident of birth in an economic sense.

A study reported by Hand in 1940 supported his first hypothesis: that the cost of going to high school made attendance impossible for many youth.⁵ In a later study, designed to test his second hypothesis, Hand found that participation in school activities is greatly affected by financial ability. Youth from the lower income brackets were completely eliminated from seven extra-curriculum activities, and in eighteen other activities their participation was below reasonable expectation.⁶ Other recent studies have added support to Hand's findings.^{7, 8, 9}

COSTS OF ATTENDING HIGH SCHOOL IN WISCONSIN

The present study, carried on in Wisconsin, was designed to determine the magnitude of the out-of-pocket expenditures by parents to keep pupils in high school. Data were collected for all costs connected with school at-

tendance. These costs included noon lunches, clothing, transportation, and participation in the social life of the school, as well as necessary supplies and equipment needed for courses taken in school. The mean per pupil cost of attending these Wisconsin high schools during the 1949-50 school year was \$124.02.

FACTORS AFFECTING COSTS OF AT- TENDING HIGH SCHOOL

Pupil expenditures were analyzed to show costs by grade, sex, parental occupation, school enrolment, number of children from a family attending high school, and geographic location of schools.

Table 1 shows that expenditures increased by grade and were higher for girls than for boys. Ninth-graders spent an average of \$91.66, which increased to \$166.36 for twelfth-grade pupils. Most of the amount spent by girls over that spent by boys went for clothing. Girls reported a mean expenditure of \$80.50 for clothing, while boys reported a mean expenditure of only \$48.96 for this item. In general,

⁷ Paul B. Jacobson, "The Cost of Attending High School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXVIII (January, 1944), 3-28.

⁸ Harold C. Hand, *Principal Findings of the 1947-1948 Basic Studies of the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program*, pp. 12-22. Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program Bulletin No. 2. Circular Series A, No. 51. Springfield, Illinois: Vernon L. Nickell, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1949.

⁹ Martin C. Howd, "A Study of Hidden Tuition Costs in Selected Illinois High Schools," pp. 207-10. Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Illinois, 1949.

⁵ Harold C. Hand, "Only Reform Schools Are Free," *American Teacher*, XXV (December, 1940), 11-13.

⁶ Harold C. Hand, "America Must Have Genuinely Democratic High Schools," in North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, *General Education in the American High School*, pp. 17-18. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1942.

expenditures made by pupils attending schools with large enrolments were heavier than those made by pupils attending schools with small enrolments.

The most significant findings of the study were the variations in expenditures when compared groups represented differences in economic ability. Pupils whose parents were business managers and owners reported a larger average expenditure than did

4,752 pupils from whom data were collected in the first semester. Incomes were obtained by inspecting the 1948 individual income-tax returns filed with the Wisconsin Department of Taxation in compliance with the Wisconsin law requiring everyone with a net income of \$1,600 or more to file a return.

Table 2 presents the amount of pupil expenditures according to parental income for the 1,370 pupils whose

TABLE 1

PER PUPIL COST OF ATTENDING HIGH SCHOOL AS REPORTED BY PUPILS IN 79 WISCONSIN HIGH SCHOOLS IN 1949-50

Classification	Per Pupil Cost	Classification	Per Pupil Cost
Pupils in Grade:		Pupils in schools enrolling:	
IX.....	\$ 91.66	100 or fewer.....	\$117.29
X.....	105.43	101- 75.....	108.95
XI.....	131.40	176-250.....	106.49
XII.....	166.36	251-400.....	122.30
Girls.....	136.75	401-800.....	123.37
Boys.....	109.16	801 or more.....	146.74
Pupils whose parents were:		Pupils living in:	
Business managers and		Southeastern Wisconsin.....	152.01
owners.....	152.42	Northern Wisconsin.....	107.40
Unemployed.....	109.36	Total cost.....	124.02

pupils whose parents were unemployed. The mean per pupil expenditure in schools located in the most favorable economic area of the state, industrial southeastern Wisconsin, was 43 per cent greater than the average in schools in northern Wisconsin, the least favorable economic area.

In order to make a more thorough investigation of the relations between economic ability and pupil expenditures, a measure of economic ability was obtained for the parents of 1,370 pupils selected at random from the

parents' incomes were ascertained. These yearly expenditure figures were obtained by increasing the actual first-semester expenditures of this group of pupils by 41 per cent. This 41 per cent represents the ratio of the mean expenditure by the 3,928 pupils from whom data were collected in the second semester to the total annual expenditure.

Differences were small in the amounts spent for school purposes by pupils whose parents reported net incomes of under \$6,000. Pupils whose

parents reported net incomes of under \$2,000 for 1948 spent nearly as much for all school-connected expenditures as did those parents reporting incomes of \$4,000 to \$5,999. However, Table 2 shows that pupils whose parents reported net incomes of \$6,000 and over spent considerably more for school attendance than did pupils whose parents reported lower incomes.

A comparison of items of expendi-

penditures by pupils for all other items of school expenditures (transportation, uniforms and equipment, school dues, school fees and fines, school publications, school donations, and lunches) increased relatively little with family income. The mean expenditure for all these items by pupils whose parents reported net incomes of less than \$2,000 was \$53.72, while pupils whose parents reported net in-

TABLE 2
RELATION OF NET FAMILY INCOME TO MEAN PER PUPIL EXPENDITURE FOR 1,370
HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS IN WISCONSIN FOR THE SCHOOL YEAR 1949-50

NET FAMILY INCOME	NUMBER OF PUPILS	MEAN PER PUPIL EXPENDITURE			
		Admission to School-sponsored Activities	Clothing	Other School Expenditures	Total
Under \$2,000 . . .	478	\$4.19	\$63.70	\$53.72	\$121.61
\$2,000-3,999 . . .	547	4.95	66.18	50.46	121.59
\$4,000-5,999 . . .	218	5.41	64.56	56.08	126.05
\$6,000 and over . .	127	6.76	91.14	60.88	158.78
All pupils . . .	1,370	\$4.92	\$67.54	\$53.54	\$126.00

ture according to family income shows that admission to school activities and clothing were the two items for which expenditures fluctuated among these income groups. Pupils whose parents reported incomes of under \$2,000 made a mean expenditure of \$4.19 for admission to school-sponsored activities, compared with a mean expenditure of \$6.76 by pupils whose parents reported incomes of \$6,000 and over. The mean expenditure for clothing was \$63.70 by pupils from families with incomes of less than \$2,000; it was \$91.14 by pupils from families with incomes of \$6,000 and over. Ex-

comes of \$6,000 and over made a mean expenditure of \$60.88.

Most items of expenditure, other than admission to school-sponsored activities and clothing, are "fixed expenses," which must be made if the pupil remains in school. Consequently, the financial ability of parents has little effect on the size of these expenditures. On the other hand, expenses for admission to school activities and clothing can be most easily reduced by pupils from low-income families since they are not related to the instructional program of the school.

SOCIOLOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE COSTS

The data presented in Table 2 show that costs for expenditures connected with the instructional program remain relatively constant regardless of the financial ability of the parents to meet these costs. These expenditures are sufficiently large to result in considerable financial burden to families in the lower-income brackets. Since the figures presented in Table 2 are per pupil

tending high school save money on their pupils' clothing but find it difficult to reduce expenditures for other school purposes.

An interesting sociological sidelight of the data presented in Table 3 is the fact that, as the number of children from a family increases, the family income decreases. Parents who have the greatest amount of financial responsibility as a group have the least financial ability to meet this responsibility.

TABLE 3
MEAN PER PUPIL EXPENDITURES AND MEDIAN FAMILY INCOME ACCORDING TO NUMBER OF CHILDREN FROM A FAMILY ATTENDING HIGH SCHOOL

NUMBER OF CHILDREN ATTENDING HIGH SCHOOL	NUMBER OF PUPILS	MEDIAN FAMILY INCOME	MEAN PER PUPIL EXPENDITURE			FAMILY COST	
			Clothing	Other School Expenditures	Total	Total	Per Cent of Income Required To Meet Pupils' Expenditures
One.....	885	\$2,881	\$71.62	\$59.49	\$131.11	\$131.11	4.6
Two.....	389	2,651	62.69	51.98	114.67	229.34	8.7
Three or more	81	2,433	43.17	53.20	96.37	289.11*	11.9
Information missing....	15						
All pupils.	1,370	\$2,818	\$67.54	\$58.46	\$126.00		

* This total is computed for only three children.

expenditures, they do not represent the financial burden to families with more than one child in school.

Expenditures according to the number of children from a family attending high school, as well as the total financial burden of families for pupil expenditures, are shown in Table 3. These data substantiate the results obtained in the comparison of pupil expenditures according to family income. Parents with low incomes and those with more than one child at-

The true picture of the burden on families of sending their children to high school is shown in the last two columns in Table 3, which indicate the total financial burden of the "hidden tuition" costs according to the number of children from a family attending high school. The data presented in Table 3 might well be cause for alarm to educators and lay people who are interested in equality of educational opportunity.

An average financial outlay of

\$289.11 was made for expenditures connected with school attendance during the 1949-50 school year by families with three children attending high school. This expenditure amounted to 11.8 per cent of the 1948 median income of these families. When this is compared with the mean expenditure of \$131.11, or 4.5 per cent of the median family income, for school expenditures made by families with one child attending high school, the inequity in financial burden becomes a matter of significance.

It may be argued that clothing and noon lunches should not be considered part of the cost of attending high school, since pupils require clothing and food whether or not they are attending school. However, such a contention is only partly correct. First, for school attendance a child obviously purchases clothing which would not be obtained by many families of little financial means were the child not attending school. Second, lunches purchased at school usually cost more than the same lunches eaten at home.

Does loss of self-confidence and morale occur among many high-school pupils who are unable to dress in a fashion comparable to that of their classmates and who find it difficult to participate in the social life of the school? Are social pressures created which may cause deviations in behavior? Do pupils drop out of school as an escape measure because of inability to meet the social demands in our public high schools? Is undue

financial burden being placed on many families who are required by law to send their children to school until the age of sixteen?

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Educators and legislators have long recognized that an educated citizenry is basic to a democracy. Not only have institutions been provided for educational purposes, but laws have been passed requiring youth to attend these institutions. The age at which school attendance is no longer compulsory is being continually adjusted upward.

Educators and legislators have also realized that the cost of attending school should not be borne entirely by the parents who have children in school. In some states, textbooks are provided without charge to all pupils. In other states, only permissive legislation has been enacted, permitting local districts to furnish free textbooks if they desire. Many states now provide transportation for pupils living beyond walking distance of school. The Wisconsin legislature passed such a law in 1949. Otherwise, the cost of attending school would have been much greater for most rural pupils. School hot-lunch programs have resulted in better meals at less cost than when pupils purchase lunches in public eating places.

The problem of expenditures connected with school attendance will not be solved until action is taken at the local level. Some steps that local school systems can take are suggested in the following paragraphs.

1. Administrators can undertake studies of "hidden tuition" costs in their schools. The results should be presented to lay groups for discussion and recommendation. Local boards of education, parent-teacher association groups, and advisory councils are groups in which discussions of this problem might prove fruitful.

2. Administrators, working with teachers, need to evaluate extra-curriculum activities in terms of the educational values of the activities. Those activities that do not meet the test should be eliminated. Those that are determined to be valuable educational experiences should be made equally available to all pupils.

3. A careful examination needs to be made of many of the expensive customs which have little or no educational value. For example, customs associated with class membership or with commencement may result in prohibitive costs to some students.

4. Most high schools now have instrumental music programs. Yet when

the financial ability to purchase a band instrument is a prerequisite for participation, many pupils are excluded. Should participation in this phase of the educational program be restricted to those who can pay?

5. School faculties, working with parents and pupils, might undertake studies of their school-sponsored formal dances. In many schools these dances involve expensive orchestras, "pre-prom" dinners, "post-prom" breakfasts, expensive corsages, elaborate clothing, and the like. Discussions involving parents, students, and teachers might result in economical changes that would be approved by all.

6. Educators at the local level need to exert leadership in asking local people to voice their opinions to state legislators on such matters as free instructional material. In most schools, instructional materials for such courses as fine and industrial arts, physical education, and music must be furnished by the pupil.

LOCATING RESOURCES FOR THE TEACHING OF LOCAL HISTORY

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THIRTY-ONE of the forty-eight states now require schools to teach local history. In eight other states such instruction is voluntary, and in more than 75 per cent of these thirty-nine states the instruction is given at both the elementary- and the secondary-school levels. Coupled with the emphasis on local history is the interest in the community-centered school.

From all over the nation come reports that teachers find it difficult to locate materials needed to teach local history or to emphasize the community. Yet actually, as this article will demonstrate, there is no shortage of materials.

The difficulty lies in the fact that teachers are not trained to find these materials; they have been overlooking them for years. Parker quotes an English historian as writing:

[One should] not mind if it is a very small village, and do not say: "I am sure this place has no history, because it is so small." Every village has its history, and it is far better to select one about which little or nothing has so far been written [3].

Goodwin notes that "the use of local history is possible everywhere" (2: 414). Long has written:

Regardless of the locality where American history is taught, or what the outline or pattern of the course, there are inseparable ties between "local" and "national" events or movements [7: 75].

The fact is that the custodians of the records of the past—the state and local historical societies—have, in increasing numbers, chosen to come down out of their dusty stacks and museums and co-operate with teachers and students in making available the rich storehouse of information that they possess. Stevens comments:

Virtually every *progressive* state and local historical society is doing something to bring the story of the state and community into proper focus in the social-studies program of the public schools [13].

In order to use local material wisely and effectively, teachers must make a systematic search for the materials that will serve, as Henry Johnson has said, as "points from which the pupil may begin his journeys to the past and to which he may return" (6: 164). Of course, the catch is that, while materials are available in abundance, unselected materials have little value. To be of maximum use, the materials must be just *the* items that will fit into

the teaching-learning pattern for a particular group at a particular time. The same materials might have little, or at least limited, value with a different group or at a different time.

If teachers are to make a systematic search for the kinds of local materials which fulfil Johnson's purposes, they must know where to find them and how they can be used. Let us look at some of the more fruitful sources of local historical and biographical materials with which teachers should have some familiarity.

PUBLIC DOCUMENTS

More than sixty years ago Robert Luce, speaking of the need for town and city histories, commented on the fact that there was "scarcely a town or city in the land that has not its records and its public documents, its newspaper files and its Fourth-of-July orations—all replete with information waiting for the historians" (8: 306). The first two suggestions, especially, apply to almost every community. The records and public documents of any unit of government are a productive source. The older the records, the more valuable they may be. Prospective teachers should be given access to town and county reports while they are still in teacher-training institutions, in order to learn what types of information are available. They should be told that in many communities the records have been kept in the possession of town officials, that many of the older records have been destroyed,

and that many of them have to be used with extreme care because of their age and physical condition.

An alert social-studies teacher in Norwich, Connecticut, uses town reports in her classroom for a unit on the study of township government (1). Her discussion of their use and the values gained from it would be helpful to any teacher who has never thought of a town or county report as teaching material.

It is also desirable that teachers learn, before they actually enter the field, that town and county officials are often extremely jealous of the records in their care but that they sometimes prove most co-operative when they understand the potential value of the documents for the young people in the local schools. Teachers should have a sense of responsibility and the good judgment to recognize when records may be handled by students. In some states, a systematic effort has been made either to remove old town records to places of safety or to photostat those that are of unusual interest or value. Information regarding such situations would also be helpful to teachers.

NEWSPAPER FILES

Luce mentioned the potential value of newspaper files—a source with which no teacher of local history should be unfamiliar. The training of social-studies teachers should include some acquaintance with old newspapers so that they will know what

type of material is available. Since photostats are becoming so inexpensive, there is no reason for any teacher-training institution to plead poverty as an excuse for failing to have a minimum of materials of this type. Teachers in rural areas need to learn that even the smallest towns usually receive attention from a newspaper in a near-by and larger community. They also need to know that many very small communities may have had community newspapers at some time in the past. The same is true in communities that have, for some reason, decreased in size over the years. Goodwin has indicated how local newspapers can be used to discover local history (2: 414).

LOCAL BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

Educational literature contains a few references to sources of local biographical data. Petersen draws his examples from Iowa history, and they are largely biographical (11). Stevens notes that "there are many persons in the history of every community who have contributed . . . to its well-being and growth and yet who may not have achieved wide recognition" (12: 1). Johnson comments on the wide availability of local biographical materials (6: 139-40).

Margaret McCarthy, a New London (Connecticut) teacher who experimented with teaching local history as a means of promoting intercultural understanding, commented that "to find material for the work of the earlier outstanding people [in her com-

munity] presented no problem" (9: 74). It is interesting to note that Miss McCarthy found it more difficult to find material about contemporary leaders than about those who had lived many years earlier. Her method was to gather material about community leaders representing every racial or religious strain that was present in her classes. It is thus apparent that, while the title of her article includes the phrase "through the teaching of local history," she was really dealing almost exclusively with local biographical materials.

In gathering local material of any kind, the teacher or the historian should keep in mind the possibility that former residents of the community may have been sufficiently prominent to receive attention in biographical or historical works. Parker suggests:

Perhaps your community has had some man prominent enough in state or national affairs to have had a biography written about him, or he may have written and published an account of his own life. In either case, he is likely to have devoted several pages or even chapters to his parentage, his boyhood, and the part the community played in his active adult life. An autobiography is closer to the subject and background than a biography if the writer has not tried to gloss over unfavorable episodes or gild his own reputation [10: 13].

Thinking along the same lines, Johnson notes that "autobiographies, diaries, journals, memoirs, personal reminiscences, and letters" are excellent sources of biographical information (6: 138).

ORGANIZATION RECORDS

An extremely useful source of information that the writer has never seen mentioned elsewhere is the records of civic, religious, and political organizations. Church minutes in the olden days often included a large amount of genealogical information. They also contained references to such interesting events as trials of the clergy, records of the erection of new buildings, notes on discussions pertaining to possible church mergers, or explanations of the reason why one particular church separated into two. Many varieties of civic organizations, all the way from the lyceums of two generations ago down to, possibly, a village improvement society of the 1920's, offer assistance if their records have been preserved.

Too often the teacher and students will find themselves temporarily frustrated because people with no sense of historical values have carelessly lost or destroyed records. When such old records are found, however, they offer a reward well worth all the effort that has gone into locating them. Records of elections and of contests for party nominations are also of frequent value.

CEMETERIES

Old cemeteries should never be neglected by the teacher who is alert to the use of local materials in his classroom. The inscriptions on the old tombstones often seem amusing to twentieth century youngsters. Information of first importance about so-

cial and economic conditions of a by-gone era can be gleaned from cemeteries by a person with imagination and curiosity.

PUBLISHED HISTORIES AND SEMI-HISTORICAL WRITINGS

Another source of information, and one in which all prospective teachers of social studies should be well versed, consists in a wide variety of historical and semihistorical material that ranges from an official history of town or county to a poem that was read at the golden wedding of Mr. and Mrs. Joshua Jones. Probably a majority of towns have at some time published a town history, even though it may now be many years old. Many county histories have been written—a regular torrent of them, at least in the eastern states, coming around the turn of the century. State histories of doubtful scholarly value often contain sections on the various towns and villages that are worth attention. Their very unreliability may recommend them to the teacher who seeks to develop a critical approach to the study of history.

BUSINESS RECORDS

Records of business organizations, if they have survived the dual ravages of time and indifference, often provide information about changing ways of living and working that are of significance. An industrial town might conceivably contain records of a long-defunct creamery that had once flourished there. Such records would evidence the existence of a dairying com-

munity and could make clear to a group of pupils the changing industrial patterns of their city. An understanding like this, in the hands of a competent teacher, might lead out and on to many a worth-while experience.

PEOPLE IN THE COMMUNITY

In the final analysis, the greatest source of information about the locality will be the people in the community. The implications of this fact are many and important. Merely to furnish one example of its importance, people who have contributed information to school children, especially if that information is about their own family or their friends, often become interested in other activities of the school. Such interest may lead to wider participation in the activities of the school, or even of the community, and to a willingness to support the school and the things that school people hope to do. Anna M. Jackson, in her article, "A School-Community Project in Historic Georgetown," writes:

The children were interested in interviewing old Georgetown inhabitants. In some instances descendants of the original Georgetown families, still living in their original homesteads, were willing to give firsthand information to the children. Much was gained from these contacts, especially in the knowledge of customs, styles, manners, and traditions [4: 418].

Let us look for a moment at some of the types of information that can be obtained from individuals in the community. Personal interviews may, in the first place, be a means of introduc-

ing teacher and student to written records of value. Perhaps a long-defunct organization had surrendered its accounts to the last president—the grandfather of someone who now shows them to a group of students. Or it may be an old deed, or a land grant signed by King George himself, or the title to a pew in some Colonial church. Letters that have been stored in attics for years may reveal important data. Old newspapers may have yellowed in trunks while several generations knew nothing of their value, or perhaps even of their presence.

Jensen, in writing about the regional program in Minnesota over a decade ago, revealed:

In one very foreign and rather isolated rural district where there were no English books or even newspapers, except those of the teacher, the children were asked to learn all they could from their parents, grandparents, or others about the experiences that had been encountered in coming to Minnesota and establishing their homes here [5: 557].

Genuine learning and understanding were the products of an experience that most of the pupils found fascinating, Jensen reports. The absence of written records, at least in English, was no handicap in their search for local biographical data that had meaning and reality for the pupils because of their family connections.

Another type of information that may be gleaned from individuals in the community consists in data about former residents or visitors, collected at some former time and then forgot-

ten. Or perhaps a local lady has had the desire to join the D.A.R., only to lose interest after all, or nearly all, the necessary information about her ancestors had been obtained. Such information now assumes new importance, both to the students who "find" it and to the lady who gives it. Often the information obtained from local people may consist in a half-forgotten memory of childhood—an old man remembers when General Grant spoke in the town hall, or an elderly, bedridden lady remembers that her mother told her, when she was small, of watching Lincoln's funeral train go mournfully through their town, and of the people who stood silently, with wet cheeks, as the train puffed away to the west. Mrs. Jones perhaps heard her father say that his father had fought in the War of 1812 and that a militia company had once drilled on the flat where the town baseball team now plays its home games. A farmer had seen, as a boy, an excavation reveal an old brick kiln.

No one bit of information may be especially significant, but many such bits give greater insight and understanding and provide multiple avenues of experience for the alert teacher.

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EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND OF JUNIOR-COLLEGE LIBRARIANS

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EDUCATORS AND OTHERS who are interested in the intellectual growth and development of American youth should be interested in the educational background of junior-college librarians for at least two major reasons. The consideration behind one reason involves the rapid growth, during recent years, in the number of junior colleges and their enrolments; behind the other, the emphasis placed on the library as a pivot for the educational programs of youth both in high schools and in colleges. These considerations, chiefly, motivated the study reported in this article.

If the librarian is merely a custodian of books, with considerable skill in finding books on shelves but only a rough idea of where to begin looking for pamphlets or documentary materials and with little imagination that is helpful from a reference standpoint, the amount of training he has had at the level of higher education may not seem important. However, if a library is to function in a vital way in the educational program of a junior college, then the librarian's general acquaintance with a broad area of learning is important, along

with imagination on the relationships among fields of learning and possible sources of information. Hence, it was thought useful to find out how much formal, general education, familiarizing one with many areas of learning, junior-college librarians throughout the country had received.

Data for the study were secured through an analysis of the catalogues of 125 junior colleges, which were chosen to include at least eight institutions from each of the nation's nine major geographical divisions.¹ The 125 junior colleges reported 185 librarians. The data on educational backgrounds of librarians, grouped by type of school control and by school enrolment, appear in Table 1.

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

The totals for all types of junior colleges, at the bottom of the table, show that 15.7 per cent of the librarians had less formal education than that represented by the Bachelor's degree. Somewhat more than half the librarians, or 55.1 per cent, held

¹ New England, Middle Atlantic, East North Central, West North Central, South Atlantic, East South Central, West South Central, Mountain, Pacific.

the Bachelor's degree, whereas less than one-third, 29.2 per cent, held the Master's degree. Of the 54 who held the Master's degree, 21 librarians, or 38.9 per cent, received it within the state in which they were

employed, while 13 librarians, or 24.1 per cent, received both Bachelor's and Master's degrees within the state where employed.

Consideration of the data by type of school shows that 112, or 60.5 per

TABLE 1
EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUNDS OF 185 JUNIOR-COLLEGE LIBRARIANS
ACCORDING TO TYPE AND SIZE OF INSTITUTION

Type of Control and Enrollment of School	Number from All Educational Levels	Number with Less than Bachelor's Degree	Number with Bachelor's Degree but Less than Master's Degree	Number with Master's Degree	Number with Master's Degree from Within State Where Employed	Number with Both Degrees from Within State Where Employed
Public:						
200 or under.....	23	6	15	2	0	0
201-500.....	36	4	21	11	3	1
501-1,000.....	12	0	9	3	2	1
Over 1,000.....	41	5	20	16	7	7
Total public:						
Number.....	112	15	65	32	12	9
Per cent.....	100.0	13.4	58.0	28.6		
Private:						
200 or under.....	11	3	7	1	0	0
201-500.....	16	4	6	6	3	1
501-1,000.....	2	0	2	0	0	0
Over 1,000.....	3	1	1	1	0	1
Total private:						
Number.....	32	8	16	8	3	2
Per cent.....	100.0	25.0	50.0	25.0		
Church:						
200 or under.....	21	2	14	5	2	1
201-500.....	16	3	6	7	4	1
501-1,000.....	4	1	1	2	0	0
Over 1,000.....	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total church:						
Number.....	41	6	21	14	6	2
Per cent.....	100.0	14.6	51.2	34.2		
All types:						
200 or under.....	55	11	36	8	2	1
201-500.....	68	11	33	24	10	3
501-1,000.....	18	1	12	5	2	1
Over 1,000.....	44	6	21	17	7	8
Total all types:						
Number.....	185	29	102	54	21	13
Per cent.....	100.0	15.7	55.1	29.2		

cent of the total number of librarians reported, were in publicly controlled institutions. A somewhat smaller per cent of these librarians than of librarians in either of the two other types of schools had no academic degree. However, a higher per cent of librarians in church schools than of those in the two other types of schools had the Master's degree. Among the librarians included in this study, those in privately controlled institutions had, in general, a lower level of academic education than those in either the public or the church-controlled schools.

When comparisons are made among schools of different sizes, it may be noted from data for "all types" at the bottom of the table that only 8, or 14.5 per cent, of the 55 librarians reported from junior colleges with enrolments of 200 or fewer students had the Master's degree. The corresponding per cents for schools in other size categories, calculated from the data for schools of "all types," are: 201-500 students, 35.3 per cent; 501-1,000 students, 27.8 per cent; and over 1,000 students, 38.6 per cent. Thus, the proportion of librarians with the Master's degree in schools of the smallest category shown was roughly from three-eighths to one-half as large as that for librarians in schools of the other three enrolment categories. Two-thirds of the librarians in the small schools held the Bachelor's degree, and one-fifth held no degree.

Data not included in the table

indicate that nearly all of the 44 junior colleges with over 1,000 students had more than one librarian, whereas only two schools with 500 or fewer students had more than one librarian. Nearly three-fourths of the privately controlled junior colleges were in New England, the South Atlantic, and the East South Central divisions, whereas New England is the only geographical division with no publicly controlled junior colleges represented in the study.

CONCLUSION

When high schools are beginning to include on their staffs a liberal sprinkling of teachers with the Master's degree, junior colleges cannot long expect to provide a suitable quality of education at a level beyond the high school if junior-college staffs include any large proportion of members with training less than that represented by the Master's degree. Whether librarians, in high schools or junior colleges, need as much "degree education" as members of the teaching staff depends substantially on the conception of the librarian's function, already noted at the beginning of this article.

The number and location of universities which grant the Master's degree in library science may also be important in relation to the number of junior-college librarians who have the Master's degree. Table 1 shows that two-fifths of the junior-college librarians with the Master's degree

received their last degree in the state in which they were employed. This fact, considered in view of the limited number and the distribution of schools which offer advanced work in library science, makes it seem probable that several of the librarians with the Master's degree received those degrees in some field not directly related to library operations.

In so far as the foregoing study is representative of the educational

background of librarians in the junior colleges of the country, the library would seem to constitute a weaker link in the effort to develop well-rounded education at the junior-college level than it does in developing such education at the high-school level. Unless more attention is given to the qualifications of librarians than seems to be the case here, the library's educational role is not likely to improve much.

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THE FOLLOWING BIBLIOGRAPHY covers the period from January, 1951, to December, 1951, inclusive, with a few exceptions.

GENERAL AND THEORETICAL DISCUSSIONS¹

526. COLADARCI, ARTHUR P. *Preprofessional Experiences in Educational Psychology: A Review of Opinion and a Critical Note*. Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, Vol. XXVII, No. 5. Bloomington, Indiana: Division of Research and Field Services, Indiana University, 1951. Pp. 30.

Reviews and evaluates suggestions for improvement of educational psychology, which fall into groups emphasizing (1) common content and methods and (2) a functional, practical approach to the solution of common educational problems. Although the former suggestions are more numerous, the author feels that it is not possible to achieve agreement on a common content and that whatever knowledges the teacher has learned should have functional value in practice.

527. DAVIS, ALLISON. "Socio-economic Influences upon Children's Learning," *Understanding the Child*, XX (January, 1951), 10-16.

Presents the talk delivered by Dr. Davis at the Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth, stressing the

importance of identifying and developing the talent to be found at the lower-status levels of American culture.

528. DENNIS, WAYNE (editor). *Readings in Child Psychology*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951. Pp. xii+626.

According to the editor, an attempt was made to give adequate representation to every major subdivision of child psychology. The major subdivisions are: (1) "Behavior of the Fetus and Neonate," (2) "Development in the First Years," (3) "Causal Factors in Early Development," (4) "The Effectiveness of Early Training," (5) "Language and Thought," (6) "Intelligence," (7) "Emotions," (8) "Personality," (9) "Social Factors in Child Behavior," and (10) "The Child in School." Each subdivision has several articles by different authorities in the field.

529. HORROCKS, JOHN E. *The Psychology of Adolescence*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1951. Pp. xxvi+614.

Based on a selected survey and interpretation of the literature of adolescence from the point of view of a psychologist and an educator, this book, according to the author, borrows from the fields of psychology, sociology, anthropology, biology, medicine, and education. The various sections deal with the adolescent period, the adolescent and his relations to others, development and growth, adolescent activities and interests, and a final overview of behavior.

530. MEAD, MARGARET. *The School in American Culture*. The Inglis Lecture, 1950.

¹ See also Item 364 (Herrick and Knight) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1951, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1951. Pp. 48.

An insightful commentary on the place of the school in the American culture, with particular emphasis on the teacher's task in reorienting himself to the complex problems of a rapidly changing social milieu.

531. STEPHENS, J. M. *Educational Psychology*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1951. Pp. xxvi+692.

A general textbook on educational growth and development—the nature of such growth, forces which affect it, and means of facilitating it. The book is addressed to the “teacher-theorist” as well as to the “teacher-practitioner.” Consequently, the materials treated are evaluated from various theoretical points of view, with their differing implications for practice.

532. STONE, CALVIN P., and TAYLOR, DONALD W. (editors). *Annual Review of Psychology*, Vol. II. Stanford, California: Annual Reviews, Inc., 1951. Pp. x+390.

A review of the psychological literature recently published, this book is divided into sections corresponding to various areas of research in psychology. Particularly relevant to education are the sections on educational psychology, personality, individual differences, learning, child psychology, and social psychology. Volume III, including much of the research published in 1951, is also available.

533. TROW, WILLIAM C. “Growth, Development, Learning, and Maturation as Factors in Curriculum and Teaching,” *Review of Educational Research*, XXI (June, 1951), 186-95.

The author attempts to bring together the diverse aspects of educational psychology and focus them on instructional practice. He supplies a frame of reference, consisting of “hypotheses for research and for school practice affecting teaching and the curriculum,” from which he reviews the pertinent literature. Includes an 88-item bibliography.

MENTAL ABILITIES AND SKILLS*

534. ASSISI, SISTER M. FRANCIS. “An Analysis of the Contents of Children's Inventive Compositions,” *Catholic Educational Review*, XLVIII (September, 1950), 441-54.

This study was based on the analysis of 1,506 compositions of seventh- and eighth-grade children. Isolates five specific types of content and describes and illustrates each. Considers intelligence, sex, and type of assignment in relation to production of these types of composition.

535. BEIER, ERNST GUNTER. *The Effect of Induced Anxiety on Flexibility of Intellectual Functioning*. Psychological Monographs, General and Applied, Vol. LXV, No. 9 (Whole No. 326). Washington: American Psychological Association, 1951. Pp. vi+26.

This study is concerned with the relation between perceived threat (stress) and various intellectual functions. The findings indicate that individuals who are faced with threat and become anxious show a loss of flexibility in abstract intellectual functioning. Some application is made to types of examinations which restrict the intellectual capacity of some persons to perform efficiently.

536. EELLS, KENNETH; DAVIS, ALLISON; HAVIGHURST, ROBERT J.; HERRICK, VIRGIL E.; and TYLER, RALPH W. *Intelligence and Cultural Differences: A Study of Cultural Learning and Problem-solving*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1951. Pp. xi+388.

A theoretical and empirical study of the effects of cultural factors which affect performance on current intelligence tests. A rationale is given for these effects and a theoretical framework established for the development of culturally fair tests in

* See also Item 690 (Rimoldi) in the list of selected references appearing in the November, 1951, number of the *School Review* and Item 161 (Zolkos) in the list appearing in the March, 1952, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

this country. Ten widely used group intelligence tests were selected for study. Half were given to all the 9-10 and half to all the 13-14-year-old children in a mid-western city of about 100,000 population. Responses to the tests were analyzed in terms of such variables as social status, form of symbolism used, type of question asked, item difficulty, and pupil age. This work is important for its theoretical presentation and its statistical demonstration of the bias of present intelligence tests in favor of middle-class children.

537. HIERONYMUS, A. N. "A Study of Social Class Motivation: Relationships between Anxiety for Education and Certain Socio-economic and Intellectual Variables," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XLII (April, 1951), 193-205. Investigates the relations between an "anxiety for education," as reflected by certain attitudes and aspirations, and a number of socioeconomic, intellectual, and achievement factors. The three main findings were that socioeconomic status is more closely related to level of socioeconomic expectation than is test intelligence (r 's of .63 and .41, respectively), that the relation between status and attitude toward education is of about the same magnitude as that between test intelligence and attitude ($r = .30$), and that socialized anxiety is a factor in the selective processes of American education.
538. LORGE, IRVING, and KRUGLOV, LORRAINE. "The Relation between Merit of Written Expression and Intelligence," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLIV (March, 1951), 507-19. Reports a study designed to test the hypothesis that both the structural and the conceptual aspects of written composition are indicative of the general intellectual level of the author. The hypothesis was judged to be confirmed. In addition, the relation between the conceptual or "merit" aspects of written expression and intelligence was found to be stronger than that between structural aspects and intelligence.

539. RABIN, ALBERT I., and GUERTIN, WILSON H. "Research with the Wechsler-Bellevue Test: 1945-1950," *Psychological Bulletin*, XLVIII (May, 1951), 211-48.

A critical examination and evaluation of research done on the Wechsler-Bellevue test during the last five years, both as a test of general intelligence and as an aid in the diagnosis of various emotional, psychiatric, and neurological conditions. Includes a 145-item bibliography.

540. TINKER, MILES A. "Fixation Pause Duration in Reading," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLIV (February, 1951), 471-79.

The author reports a series of eye-movement studies undertaken at the Minnesota Laboratory, proposing to "co-ordinate all the data on pause duration from these studies." Gives a brief but fairly comprehensive summary of results.

541. TRAXLER, ARTHUR E. "Intercorrelations and Validity of Scores on Three Reading Tests," *1950 Fall Testing Program in Independent Schools and Supplementary Studies*, pp. 79-89. Educational Records Bulletin No. 56. New York: Educational Records Bureau, 1951.

Reports the intercorrelations obtained for the Iowa Silent Reading Test, the Cooperative English Test, and the Diagnostic Reading Test, as well as the correlations of each of these tests with various criteria of validity.

542. ZINTZ, MILES V. "Academic Achievement and Social and Emotional Adjustment of Handicapped Children," *Elementary School Journal*, LI (May, 1951), 502-7.

Compares the performance of a group of handicapped children with a random sample of nonhandicapped children on the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills. In addition to finding a significant difference in favor of the latter, the author reports a tendency for handicapped children to manifest more aggressive traits than the nonhandicapped.

INSTRUCTION AND LEARNING³

543. BIRCH, HERBERT G., and RABINOWITZ, HERBERT S. "The Negative Effect of Previous Experience on Productive Thinking," *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, XLI (February, 1951), 121-25.

Reports a study to determine the effects of specific experience with objects in unrelated situations upon their utility as problem-solving instruments. Indicates that specific prior experience limited the perception of object properties and made the experimental materials less available as problem-solving tools. These conclusions are linked with Duncker's concept of "functional fixedness."

544. CANTOR, NATHANIEL. "Function and Focus in the Learning Process," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLV (November, 1951), 225-31.

Asserting that the aim of this essay is to clarify the function of the classroom teacher, the author advocates a course in which the teacher focuses on his service to the student, not on the student, thus supplying a focus which provides the most effective means for the student's development as a person.

545. CELLER, SIDNEY L. "Practices Associated with Effective Discipline: A Descriptive Statistical Study of Discipline," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XIX (June, 1951), 333-58.

The purpose of this investigation was to study descriptively the dozen or so vital practices that make for a good disciplinarian in a teacher. The author asserts that the following three practices are associated with effective discipline: (1) using all available equipment and visual aids to enrich a lesson and interest pupils, (2) routinizing various classroom procedures, and (3) presenting the subject matter in a vital and enthusiastic manner.

³ See also Item 158 (Clark) in the list of selected references appearing in the March, 1952, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

546. DRUCKER, A. J., and REMMERS, H. H. "Citizenship Attitudes of Graduated Seniors at Purdue University, U.S. College Graduates, and High-School Pupils," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XLII (April, 1951), 231-35.

Summarizes studies which were concerned with the role of education in the development of citizenship attitudes. Concludes that these studies indicate that the citizenship attitudes of individuals exposed directly or indirectly to general education are better than the attitudes of persons exposed to specialized education.

547. MARKS, MELVIN R. "Problem Solving as a Function of the Situation," *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, XLI (January, 1951), 74-80.

Hypothesizes a positive relation between a person's awareness of the "given's" of a problem and his ability to solve that problem. Awareness depends on analysis, and loosely formulated (personal) problem situations tend to disrupt analytical capacity, whereas concisely formulated (impersonal) problem situations do not.

548. REDL, FRITZ, and WATTENBERG, WILLIAM W. *Mental Hygiene in Teaching*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1951. Pp. xiv+454.

A practical, easy-to-read book stressing the preventive function of mental hygiene and the role of the teacher in instituting favorable conditions for child growth. Case materials are offered to help teachers understand both their own limitations and the valuable contributions of specialists.

549. SLOBETZ, FRANK. "How Elementary-School Teachers Meet Selected School Situations," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XLII (October, 1951), 339-56.

Patterned somewhat after the classic Wickman study, this research attempted to analyze teachers' attitudes toward selected school situations. Results are reported in terms of the types of behavior considered most "annoying" to teachers,

the relation of the annoyance value of different behavior problems to teacher characteristics, etc.

550. STONE, G. R., and LYNN, JAMES O. "Motor Performance of Children as a Function of Inverting Their Reported Scores," *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology*, LXXVIII (March, 1951), 97-103.

The scores of thirty subjects on a mirror-drawing task were systematically inverted and then reported to the subjects, the resulting state of affairs serving to punish falsely those who were doing well and reward those who were performing poorly. Results, though tentative, associate inversion with a negatively accelerated performance curve as contrasted with the positively accelerated curve following a true report of performance.

551. "Symposium on Learning," *Psychological Review*, LVIII (September, 1951), 350-86.

Presents discussion of various critical issues in current learning theory: "Two-Factor Learning Theory: Summary and Comment" by O. H. Mowrer; "Sensory Integration and Cognitive Theory" by H. G. Birch and M. E. Bitterman; "The Contiguity Principle in Learning Theory" by Fred D. Sheffield; "Reflections and Confessions of a Reinforcement Theorist" by Howard H. Kendler; "Comments on Multiple-Process Conceptions of Learning" by Neal E. Miller; and "Can Reinforcement Theory Account for Avoidance?" by Benbow F. Ritchie.

552. THELEN, HERBERT A. (editor). "Experimental Research toward a Theory of Instruction," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLV (October, 1951), 89-136.

A report of the developing theoretical framework of the Human Dynamics Laboratory at the University of Chicago and several researches concerned with the theory of instruction and group process as it applies to classroom situations, community change, etc. Includes an Introduc-

tion by Herbert A. Thelen; "The Development of the Climate Index" by John Withall; "Personal-social Anxiety as a Factor in Experimental Learning Situations" by Ned A. Flanders; "A Comparison of Pupil-Teacher Planning and Teacher-directed Procedures in Eighth Grade Social Studies Classes" by Kenneth J. Rehage; "Climate Influences Group Learning" by Hugh V. Perkins; "The Teacher's Feelings as an Educational Resource" by John C. Glidewell; "Teacher-Administrative Leader Perceptions of Pupils" by James Singletary; and "Current Investigations in the Laboratory" by Thelen.

553. WEISSKOPF, EDITH A. "Some Comments Concerning the Role of Education in the 'Creation of Creation,'" *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XLII (March, 1951), 185-89.

Suggests that, in overemphasizing industry, regular study habits, and a critical, controlled attitude toward intellectual work, educators may "de-emotionalize" intellectuality and thus contribute to the suffocation of intellectual creativity.

PERSONALITY AND SOCIAL ROLE⁴

554. ACKERMAN, NATHAN W. "Group Dynamics: I. 'Social Role' and Total Personality," *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, XXI (January, 1951), 1-17.

This article has a threefold purpose: (1) to discern useful socio-psychological criteria for a dynamic concept of social role, (2) to discuss the relation between social role and total personality, and (3) to offer some reflections on the application of the psychoanalytic method to the further study of this problem.

555. *Cultural Groups and Human Relations*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951. Pp. 214.

⁴ See also Item 512 (Strong) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1951, number of the *School Review*.

Presents twelve lectures given at the 1949 Conference on Educational Problems of Special Cultural Groups, which was primarily concerned with the education of Negroes in the United States and of non-Europeans in Africa and the West Indies. Lecturers were Gordon W. Allport, Charles S. Johnson, Margaret Read, Ralph E. McGill, Allison Davis, Edmund deS. Brunner, Muzafer Sherif, Abdel Rahman Ali Taha, Ernst G. Malherbe, Alvin Zander, Laurence DeFee Haskew, and Anna Eleanor Roosevelt.

556. GAGE, N. L., and SUCI, GEORGE. "Social Perception and Teacher-Pupil Relationships," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XLII (March, 1951), 144-52.

The authors tested the hypothesis that accuracy of social perception is positively related to effectiveness of interpersonal relations. The teachers of a high school were asked to predict students' answers to opinion items about various aspects of the school. The adequacy of their predictions was found to be significantly related to pupils' ratings of the teachers and to their scores on the Cook-Leeds "Teacher Attitude Inventory."

557. GALLER, ENID HARRIS. "Influence of Social Class on Children's Choices of Occupations," *Elementary School Journal*, LI (April, 1951), 439-45.

Reports a study of a lower-class group and an upper-middle-class group to determine to what extent social-class culture influences a child's choice of occupation, and the reasons behind this choice. Concludes that social class is at least as important a factor as chronological age in determining children's choice of occupations.

558. GILMORE, JOHN V. "A New Venture in the Testing of Motivation," *College Board Review*, No. 15 (November, 1951), 221-26.

Reports that a high relation between personal and family adjustment and academic performance was found among college students.

559. LEWIS, CLAUDIA, and BIBER, BARBARA. "Reactions of Negro Children toward Negro and White Teachers," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XX (September, 1951), 97-104.

Reports a preliminary study of Negro children's reactions to photographs of Negro and white "teachers." Tentative conclusions are reached with regard to the dynamics of attitude organization underlying the choices.

560. MENNINGER, WILLIAM C., M.D. *Self-understanding: A First Step to Understanding Children*. Better Living Booklet for Parents and Teachers. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1951. Pp. 50.

Represents an attempt to aid parents and teachers in developing self-understanding. Chapter titles are: "Learning about Yourself," "Your Early Development," "The Struggle," "Mental Mechanisms," "Solving Your Problems," and "Staying Mentally Healthy." Offers examples and suggestions for further reading.

561. SHERMAN, MANDEL, and BELL, ELIZABETH. "The Measurement of Frustration: An Experiment in Group Frustration," *Personality*, I (January, 1951), 44-53.

Two groups of high-school subjects were given a test designed to measure level of performance for memory (recognition) of words arranged randomly after the words had been learned incidentally. One group was then given a difficult test of arithmetic and general intelligence, while the other group was presented with simple material. All subjects were subsequently retested on recognition of the words originally learned. It was concluded that even mild frustration affects mental efficiency, that individuals better able to cope with the difficult material under normal circumstances lost comparatively less as a result of frustration, and that those individuals showing highest or lowest levels of efficiency under frustration are those also recognized by teachers as being least or

most easily disturbed by frustrating classroom situations.

562. STENDLER, CELIA B. "Social Class Differences in Parental Attitude toward School at Grade-I Level," *Child Development*, XXII (March, 1951), 37-46.

The author tested the hypothesis that there are social-class differences in parental belief in, and support of, the school at Grade-I level. Status-linked differences were found with regard to the child's chances of preschool attendance, preschool preparation of the child by the parent, educational aspirations of the parent for the child, and parental reception of the report card.

563. STOUFFER, SAMUEL A., and TOBY, JACKSON. "Role Conflict and Personality," *American Journal of Sociology*, LVI (March, 1951), 395-406.

Explores operational procedures for link-

ing the study of social norms with the study of personality. A social norm can be inferred from respondents' reports as to role obligations in a specific social situation. To the extent that an individual is consistent, in varying types of situations, in reporting one type of role obligation rather than another, this tendency is considered a personality predisposition.

564. THETFORD, WILLIAM N.; MOLISH, HERMAN B.; and BECK, SAMUEL J. "Developmental Aspects of Personality Structure in Normal Children," *Journal of Projective Techniques*, XV (March, 1951), 58-78. (Glendale 6, California: Society for Projective Techniques and Rorschach Institute, Inc., 210 East Wilson Avenue.)

A cross-sectional study of developmental aspects of personality structure in a group of normal children by means of the Rorschach technique.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

Democracy in a World of Tensions: A Symposium Prepared by UNESCO. Edited by RICHARD McKEON with the assistance of STEIN ROKKAN. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1951. Pp. xviii+540. \$4.50.

This is not just another book on democracy. It is a special symposium representing UNESCO and its philosophy of reconciliation of viewpoints. The sources of conflicts and the causes of tensions are given a thorough investigation, with scholarly men from several countries contributing psychologically sound judgments on these critical matters. One of the main purposes of UNESCO is to promote co-operation by means of projects where collaboration is indispensable. Although general aims and ends for world peace were widely acceptable when the constitution of UNESCO was formulated, during the past five years numerous differences have arisen bearing on political views and procedures, philosophical attitudes, and religious traditions.

Discussions and disagreements have shown the necessity of exploring the potential effects of varying conceptions of human freedom; personal and group prerogatives; democracy in action; our need for international law and order; and justice for all races, peoples, and nations considered in relation to other countries and their inhabitants. More and more it is becoming clear that research projects on a large scale will have to be conducted to discover and interpret the historical and metaphysical foundations of the rights of man. Differences in definitions and conceptions of democracy and liberty are today being studied which

will help the many organizations and institutions that are working for a more mutually cordial and harmonious humanity.

UNESCO in general, and this publication in particular, will serve as a moral tonic to those who have been indifferent and sluggish in their outlook. Of one thing we are fast becoming certain: When the right persons in great enough numbers and from a broad enough area put their minds together in a powerful effort to reconcile international clashes of opinion and to reassure sharply varying groups about the future, then we shall be on the road toward a peaceful world. This volume is not a scientific study of the nature of democracy; neither is it a poll of opinion on the different conceptions of democracy now in vogue. The subject matter of the book reflects the results of a profound and sincere attempt to "uncover the traditions of thought and the basic assumptions of theory which influence discussions and negotiations."

Determining the content and form of this inquiry about democracy required a vast amount of strenuous intellectual labor: lining up the items to be included in the questionnaire; carrying on an exceptionally extensive correspondence with distinguished scholars, specialists, and personalities; assembling copious replies from all over the world; and analyzing their ingredients painstakingly and constructively. Several well-known names have been associated with this elaborate publication project—Julian Huxley, Jaime Torres-Bodet, Arne Naess, Jean Thomas, and J. J. Mayoux, to mention a few. Other famous names found in the list of contributors are Charles Bettelheim, G. A.

Borgese, John Dewey, G. C. Field, Barna Horvath, Horace Kallen, Humayun Kabir, James Marshall, Eric Weil, Quincy Wright, Alf Ross, Chaim Perelman, and Emmanuel Mounier. This list includes only half of the contributors, a fact that should spur the prospective reader to look forward with anticipation to reading this piece of co-operative workmanship.

The general pattern of composition in the expository units in the book consisted in dividing the over-all subject of democracy and its psychological environment of tensions into these specific aspects: ambiguities in terminology, common characteristics, the expansive meaning of liberty, dissentient opinions, kinds of tolerance in operation, repression of propaganda, skepticism about the influence and value of democracy, ultimate aims, kinds of democracy—classical and bourgeois, delegation of power, political-intellectual liberalism, examples of successful democracy, abuse of democratic institutions, new uses of democratic forces, socialism, expressions of popular interest, and evidences of the critical significance of democratic processes.

This listing of topical divisions that received the greatest attention demonstrates the comprehensive coverage of *Democracy in a World of Tensions*. Crucial issues have been brought out and planning programs suggested by the shrewd and penetrating students of war and peace who contributed to the book. The ultimate purpose of the United Nations and UNESCO is objectively and helpfully revealed in these pages.

It is the reviewer's prediction that some of the more pertinent recommendations proposed will be universally and fruitfully discussed throughout the critical years ahead. The sponsors are entitled to unstinted praise for conceiving so pretentious a project, and especially for making available for the general reader such a mass of creative and stimulating thought-substance. The reader will agree with the opening statement of this review that this book is something much

bigger than just another verbal outburst on democracy. It is one of the most substantial documents so far provided in English on this inviting subject.

CARROLL D. CHAMPLIN

Pennsylvania State College



T. WALTER WALLBANK, *Man's Story: World History in Its Geographic Setting*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1951. Pp. 768. \$3.76.

Man's Story is another in the distinguished series of social-studies textbooks produced by capable specialists and ably coordinated under the editorship of I. James Quillen. Its attractiveness, variety of scope and treatment, and focus on the contemporary scene and on the United States in particular give it a high standard of usefulness for teachers—and one that may be difficult to match.

The attractiveness of this volume does not rest on the effective, although somewhat limited, use of color. Its unit and chapter titles promise exciting things to follow, and the illustrations accompanying the titles are thought-provoking rather than merely decorative. Other features which contribute to the book's appeal and usefulness in teaching are the photographs; time lines after each unit listing events chronologically; ample, but not too profuse, use of charts; and cartoons depicting various situations confronting "Hy," a character familiar to *Saturday Review of Literature* readers.

Often-neglected aspects of history are treated in such chapters as "Byzantine," "Northern and Russian Empires," "India and China Led the March of Civilization," and "The West Invades the East." Latin America, Africa, New Zealand, and Australia are also adequately portrayed, considering the serious space limitations common to textbooks of this type.

Although well-written sections on geography follow each of the book's ten units, the "geographic setting" mentioned in the title is effectively provided by eighty maps employing a wide variety of cartographic techniques. The text itself, besides the "Geographic Supplements," is rich in materials drawn from geography and rises far above the political-military procession marching in strict chronology which often passes for "history" in our schools.

The major dramatic and intellectual impact of *Man's Story* is the large extent to which it is organized around *basic human problems*. Although chronology is respected, such chapter titles as the following illustrate the importance of ideas and crucial issues: "Greeks Experiment with Reason and Liberty" (chapter iv), "The Feudal Age Seeks Security" (chapter viii), "Science Promotes the Age of Reason" (chapter xxx). The "Geographic Supplements," however, do not always maintain this major developmental theme of the volume, presenting at many points a geographic determinism which, despite careful qualifications, results in a focus on geography *as such*, rather than on an illumination of human history and human problems *through* geography. Nevertheless, the "Supplements" contribute much to *Man's Story* and may be a significant development in the teaching of world history.

The reader is treated considerably and is not forgotten after the sensible salutation of chapter i, "You and World History." Through illustrations and reading matter, the relevance of "world history" to contemporary life is consistently and skilfully drawn. The author does not "talk down to" the reader by oversimplifying the significant issues which are the concern of the book, although the treatment of such subjects as Adam Smith's theories and socialism is rather sketchy.

The sections at the end of the chapters upon which many teachers rely provide better-than-usual material for the serious study of the history of man. These sections

include such headings as "From the Reviewing Stand," covering a page or more of comment on the chapter worthy of thoughtful reading; "Do You Know the Headlines of the Past?" "Test Yourself," requiring answers that are seldom possible without *reflection* as well as reading; "Ideas for Thought and Study," which are excellent in the main; and "Something To Do," a title less felicitous than the reader would expect. A valuable section of annotated readings are grouped under titles such as "More about History," "About Famous Men and Women," and "History Lives in Literature."

The reader finds ample challenge to think in these sections as well as in the frequent questions which occur at the bottom of the pages. At the end of the chapter he is encouraged to focus his study upon particular persons, key words, and dates and places of important events. After taking these steps he is expected to "provide his own thinking" and, finally, to "do something about it." The time lines at the end of the units, although excellent, also over-encourage the reader's attention to chronology. Some teachers may welcome these ready-made, easy-to-assign-and-correct exercises which measure learning through recall of dates, places, people, vocabulary, and order of events. Others will not use these alleged aids to learning because of their conviction that such subject matter has validity in teaching only as it becomes part of living events. For these teachers such facts as dates, vocabulary, and places of events will be involved in learning concepts and studying problems but will not be treated, nor will they serve, as prerequisites to the direct study of meaningful human problems.

Man's Story, as told by Wallbank and the many others who have contributed to the book, is a tale for enjoyable study and reflection. Students and teachers who use it in high-school classes should find it a thrilling experience.

DOUGLAS S. WARD

University of Virginia

ROBERT F. WINCH, *The Modern Family*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1952. Pp. xxii+522. \$3.90.

Winch's new book is concerned with what is true of the family by virtue of the fact that all human behavior may be viewed as oriented to the gratification of needs. The consequences for socialization of interpersonal dependence in the family constitutes the focus of attention. The author's indication of some of these consequences is important to the educator because the problem of interpersonal dependence is closely related to learning and socialization in any group activity.

Dr. Winch first describes the losses of family functions in American society. He discusses the economic, reproductive, status-conferring, socializing, and security-providing functions in the family as decreasingly gratifying experiences. Where the family fails to meet his needs, the individual feels less and less dependent upon it. The author then proceeds to show that this decline of dependence has weakened the "tightness" of family structure. Increasing insecurity in family roles has sensitized individuals to the deprivations and gratifications associated with socialization in the family. Socialization is regarded as having three objectives: inculcation of morals, learning of skills, and the development of an acceptable personality. According to Dr. Winch, socialization in the family in each of these three areas has followed a pattern of determining, through testing for gratifications and deprivations, the roles and skills that meet the individual's needs. This pattern of testing for dependability is especially pronounced in the creation of the new family, that is, in courtship and marriage. Hence, in the section on courtship and marriage Dr. Winch makes explicit his theory of dependence and love, which is essentially neo-Freudian, as the basis of family structure.

In the final section, Dr. Winch states opposing interpretations of trends in family disorganization. He sets off the "individualists"

(Burgess and Folsom), who emphasize personality growth and happiness, against the "institutionalists" (Zimmerman and Schmiedeler), who emphasize group stability and continuity. Since Dr. Winch's presentation is at a different level of analysis from those whose interpretations he discusses, he finds it unnecessary to agree with either side.

Dr. Winch has organized this book around his theory of love. He describes love as an emotion arising from complementation of need gratification (or a sense of dependence). By discussing love as an emotion, Dr. Winch has missed some of the features of love as a socializing process. His section on love also indicates an inadequate analysis of the concept of dependence. For example, in placing types of love on a continuum of dependence, he equates "dependent" love, which relies upon constant reassurance and close contact, with "romantic" love, which relies upon maintaining distance. These two kinds of love indicate different socializing processes.

The eclecticism of the author's approach inevitably leads to some inconsistency in presentation, but Dr. Winch has competently organized a great deal of material from various fields into a fairly coherent pattern which is meaningful to the reader.

BERNARD FARBER

University of Chicago



ASSOCIATION OF SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK, *A Handbook for Social Studies Teaching*. New York: Republic Book Co., 1951. Pp. viii+240. \$3.00.

Although this handbook was written by secondary-school teachers from the Association of Social Studies Teachers in New York particularly for teachers of that city, the writers hope that it will prove useful for other teachers as well. They describe a variety of practices and principles taken from their daily teaching experiences in the belief

that these may help readers in working out their own practices and in formulating their own principles.

The book is divided into twelve chapters. The first of these, "Ideals and Purposes," presents a set of objectives, understandings, abilities, and attitudes, which social-studies students should develop. Chapter ii, "Planning Our Work," offers suggestions particularly for daily activities, such as making assignments, motivating students, and acquiring knowledge. In chapters iii and iv are descriptions of typical procedures, first, for a social-studies class in which learning experiences are organized in units and, next, for a core class. Chapter v, "Teacher and Class in Action," discusses some factors which produce good learning situations.

The next four chapters deal with special problems—the slow learner and the superior student, the place and purposes of current affairs in the social-studies curriculum, and audio-visual materials and techniques. All these chapters contain many sample procedures. Chapter x gives suggestions and sample items for use in constructing tests to measure progress toward various objectives.

At the end of the book readers will find a collection of notes pointing out good and poor teaching practices that have been observed by supervisors and a useful annotated bibliography of a wide range of selected readings. Bibliographies are also included in several of the chapters.

The problems discussed in the *Handbook* are often inadequately defined. Consequently, the practices and principles presented are sometimes of limited usefulness and sometimes inconsistent with one another. The book offers teachers little help in analyzing such problems as determining student needs, improving the effectiveness of learning situations, and evaluating progress, or in formulating basic principles to deal with such problems.

Better organization would have avoided some repetition and scattering discussions of several topics. However, the book presents

its practices and principles in familiar language and considers problems that are easily recognized by teachers. A large number of the *Handbook's* suggestions will be stimulating to many social-studies teachers or prospective teachers.

JEAN FAIR

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University of Illinois



JOE SMITH, *Student Councils for Our Times: Principles and Practices*. Teachers College Studies in Education. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951. Pp. viii+110. \$2.00.

In this small but interesting book the author penetrates the overburden of method and procedure and gets down to pay dirt in his thinking and recommendations regarding the proper place and function of the student council in the American high school.

The dilemma of how a student council can function in the traditional line and staff organization of the school and still be genuine, without a confusing dualism, is analyzed by the author. Present practices are summarized which indicate that student councils, as a general rule, are tolerated in most schools and fall short of serving their true purposes.

The author points out that, if one of the primary purposes of secondary education is citizenship training, then real training in civic processes, such as that furnished by student councils, is valid. The school principal must consider the soundness of the foundation upon which he may build this concept, lest the real purpose be overshadowed by too much emphasis on function. Various functions are discussed in relation to their purposes to show the gaps that exist between the actuality and the ideal.

This reviewer agrees with the author that many principals have student councils in

their schools and have never really faced the issue of whether they are just superficialities. This is but one segment of a much larger issue facing American education today. Communities are being disrupted, teachers and administrators are under fire, and well-meaning lay citizens' committees are trying to seek answers.

Secondary education is at the crossroads. If and when the true purposes and functions of our American high school, in all of its aspects, are established and recognized by

the people whom it serves, then this problem of student councils and many others will be greatly simplified.

The book is thought stimulating and succinct although the verbiage gets somewhat pedantic in spots, at least for high-school principals for whom the book is apparently intended.

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